

# THE LITERARY GAZETTE.

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No. 194 (2354).—Vol. VIII. NEW SERIES.] LONDON, SATURDAY, MARCH 15, 1862.

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**NOTICE TO ARTISTS.**—All Works of Painting, Sculpture, Architecture, or Engraving, intended for the ensuing EXHIBITION at the ROYAL ACADEMY, must be sent in on MONDAY, the 7th, or TUESDAY, the 18th of April next, after which time no Work can possibly be received, nor can any Works be received which have already been publicly exhibited.

It is proposed to Open the Exhibition Rooms on certain Evenings of the week during the latter part of the season.

**FRAMES.**—All Pictures and Drawings must be in gilt frames. Oil Paintings under glass, and Drawings with wide margins are inadmissible. Excessive breadth in frames as well as projecting mouldings may prevent Pictures obtaining the situation they otherwise merit. The other Regulations necessary to be observed may be obtained at the Royal Academy.

Every possible care will be taken of Works sent for exhibition, but the Royal Academy will not hold itself accountable in any case of injury or loss, nor can it undertake to pay the carriage of any package.

The prices of Works to be disposed of may be communicated to the Secretary.

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A. PANIZZI, Principal Librarian.

British Museum, 10th March, 1862.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, MARCH 15, 1862.

# REVIEWS.

*An Historical Survey of the Astronomy of the Ancients.* By the Right Hon. Sir George Cornwall Lewis. Parker, Son, and Bourn.

THIS is a work of solid and extensive erudition, the more remarkable as coming not from the hand of an Oxford or Cambridge Professor, but of a British Cabinet Minister. The text contains a clear, readable digest of facts; while beneath we have a copious apparatus of notes, not mere references but for the most part full quotations in support of the statements made above. As far as classical authorities—Greek and Latin—go, Sir G. Lewis seems to have left no corner unransacked, and the writings of modern investigators, continental and English, are likewise extensively laid under contribution. The object of the work, as set forth by the author in the first page, is not to form a history of ancient astronomy from a scientific point of view, or with reference to its bearing upon modern astronomical science. It is not intended to follow in the steps of Delambre, whose histories of ancient mediæval and modern astronomy are works composed by an astronomer principally for the use of astronomers, and which can only be mastered by one versed in modern mathematical science.

"Astronomy [remarks Sir G. Lewis] has this peculiarity, that it is conversant with subjects which, from the earliest ages, have attracted the daily attention of mankind, and which gave birth to observation and speculation before they were treated by strictly scientific methods. Chronology, moreover, without which political history cannot exist, is dependent upon astronomical determinations. The year and month are measured by the motions of the sun and moon; and in order to secure the accuracy of the necessary measurements, the assistance of the astronomer must be obtained. The history of astronomy has numerous points of contact with the general history of mankind; and it concerns questions which interest a wider class than professed astronomers, for whose benefit the existing histories have been mainly composed."

Treating the subject in this spirit, Sir G. Lewis devotes the first four chapters to describing the progress of astronomical knowledge among the Greeks and Romans from the early rude conceptions of the times of Homer and Hesiod down to the scientific views of Ptolemy. The latter half of the book discusses the question of the nature and amount of knowledge of astronomy possessed by the Egyptians and Babylonians, and as accessories we have two dissertations upon the early history and chronology of these people, and finally a chapter upon the navigation of the Phœnicians.

Historical science, as distinguished from history artistically considered, is, we may say, the youngest of the family of sciences. It is one of which the foundations are but lately laid; one which has still to combat for its very existence against the traditional views of former ages, and one of which the genuine investigators are still few. Its materials are the chronicles and monuments of the past; its problem, to determine what men have really done upon this earth, so far as that can be ascertained. Much that formerly passed for history must now be admitted to be the product of imagination working upon slight traditions; and experience shows that nothing is more

difficult than to arrive at the exact truth of quite recent events. General conclusions as to the career of races, and of their connection one with another, may be arrived at by analogies of language and other indications; but the special acts of men can only be known, more or less perfectly, from contemporary written records, or records framed shortly after the events, and before the original accounts had been transmuted by the rapid action of tradition. No writer has inculcated the rules of historic science with more clearness, nor applied them with more unflinching severity, than Sir G. Lewis. In the *Enquiry into the Credibility of the Early Roman History*, he dealt a severe blow to the bold system of Niebuhr, who was once thought to have placed historical inquiries upon a sound basis, and to have furnished a typical example of its treatment in his *History of Rome*. In the work before us our author says, "The method with which Niebuhr treated the early history of Rome was to reject the historical narrative handed down by ancient, and generally received by modern writers, and to substitute for it a new narrative reconstructed on an arbitrary hypothetical basis of his own. Everything that is original and peculiar in Niebuhr's historical method, and in its results, is indeed unsound."

While we cordially assent to the canons of evidence which Sir G. Lewis has laid down, we perceive openings for considerable dissent in the application of them, and danger lest by the too summary rejection of materials at command we should deprive ourselves of a great deal of attainable knowledge. Sir G. Lewis has gone somewhat out of his way in the present work to make a fierce onslaught upon recent investigations into the long-forgotten histories of Egypt and the East; investigations which are certainly in their infancy, but which are, to say the least, highly promising, and which are still carried on with a zeal not likely to be damped by the cold water here abundantly poured upon them. To this subject we must return presently. In the meantime, let us follow our author cursorily through his narrative of the growth of astronomical ideas amongst the Greeks and Romans.

From Homer down to Herodotus, a lapse of five centuries, the popular and generally-received idea of the earth was, that it was a circular plane, surmounted and bounded by the heaven, which was a solid vault or hemisphere, with its concavity turned downwards. The Greeks believed this from what they thought the evidence of their senses. Whether the spectator be on a high eminence, or in a large plain, or at sea, the horizon appears everywhere equidistant from the eye; hence it was inferred by induction that the whole earth was circular. A more extended knowledge of countries, and the attempt to construct maps, led some to see the insufficiency of this reasoning. "Many, even now," says Herodotus, "commit the ludicrous and ignorant error of drawing a map of the earth, in which it is represented of a circular form, as if its outline were traced by a compass; and the ocean is made to flow round it." The heaven being supposed to be a solid vault, the sun, moon, and stars were thought to move upon or with the inner surface of this hemisphere; and as the ocean was supposed to flow in a stream round the outer margin of the earth, the heavenly bodies were believed to emerge from the ocean at their rising, and to sink into it at their setting. How or by what path the sun and other heavenly bodies got back from the west to the east was not very clearly understood. Some thought that the sun's course was not under the earth, but that

after its setting in the west, it travelled round the north to the east, and that night was caused by the elevation of the northern part of the earth, which hid the sun during this transit.

The importance of the sun's movements as measuring out the life of man, and determining his daily and hourly course of action, must early have led to observations upon the laws by which these movements are governed. The length of the day and the alternation of seasons depend upon his position in the heavens, and the regularity with which, day and night, summer and winter succeed one another in perpetual round, introduced order into human conduct, and thus the sun became, as it were, the friend and guide of man in his first efforts to methodize his actions. But very rude and inexact definitions of time were all that was necessary for the simple wants of nascent communities. Still, in the most remote antiquity we already find the year divided into months, measured roughly by the phases of the moon, and greatly must the early inhabitants of earth have been puzzled by the impossibility of bringing the movements of sun and moon into exact numerical accordance. Roughly, the tropical year was treated in Homeric times, as consisting of twelve lunations of thirty days each, and thus as having three hundred and sixty days; hence it was that the ecliptic was divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, and this number has held its place in the angular measurement of the circumference of the circle down to our own times. It was not until towards the time of Thales (B.C. 639 to 546) that some accuracy of measurement began to be introduced into astronomical calculation. He is said to have predicted an eclipse of the sun, and to have fixed the length of the year at three hundred and sixty-five days. The Greek writers attributed his advanced knowledge in astronomy to his intercourse with Egyptian priests. He considered the sun, moon, and stars to be of an earthly solid substance, and held that the moon derived its light from the sun. He rightly attributed an eclipse of the moon to the interposition of the earth between the sun and moon, and the eclipse of the sun to the interposition of the moon between the sun and the earth. At the same time, his notion of the earth's form must have been somewhat confused, if we believe the statement that he considered the earth to float upon water like a plank or a ship, a doctrine which he is also said to have brought from Egypt. On a review of the conflicting views attributed to him by various writers, Sir G. Lewis concludes that very little that is related of him is worthy of belief. His visit to Egypt, like other journeys to foreign countries attributed to Greek philosophers, our author thinks is probably apocryphal, remarking that if Thales profited by the lessons of the Egyptian priests in geometry, it is not likely that he should have taught them, as some writers state, a mode of measuring the height of the Pyramids. Doubtless, most of the accounts given of his performances have inconsistencies in themselves, and are easily pulled to pieces. While he is said to have predicted an eclipse, which is at least possible, other predictions beyond the powers of even modern science are equally ascribed to him, and which have the appearance of fable. Thus he is related to have foreseen during a certain winter that there would be a large crop of olives the next year; and having been taunted with the inutility of his philosophy, he hired all the oil-presses in Miletus and Chios at a low rent, and then made a large profit by letting them out when the olive crop

was gathered. He is also said on one occasion to have foretold a storm. We are not sure, however, that these stories will appear altogether incredible to modern speculators on the vicissitudes of the crops of corn and hops, and we believe that the countrymen of Thales are still distinguished in our own markets for something of the same kind of wisdom which is attributed to him in their old legends. At any rate, we may be pretty sure that this olive speculation, if not true of Thales, is true of some cunning old Greek, and the fathering of it upon Thales shows the general and popular belief in his extraordinary knowledge of physics.

How far his knowledge extended, we must admit, remains doubtful, and the story of his foretelling an eclipse, as related by Herodotus, is burdened with difficulties. His death preceded the manhood of Herodotus by about a century, and he left nothing in writing; yet the universal voice of Greece proclaimed him as the real founder of astronomy, and so much we can scarcely refuse to believe. Anaximander, who was his disciple and companion, is said to have been the first Greek who wrote in prose, and he left behind him certain statements of his philosophical doctrines. Sir G. Lewis accordingly admits that about the opinions of this philosopher, something positive may be believed. How different is this cautious treatment of history from the indiscriminating faith of earlier philosophers! Newton, in his *Treatise on Ancient Chronology*, assigns the origin of astronomical science to the heroic ages of Greece. His argument rests on three hypotheses—first, that Chiron, the centaur, delineated constellations, and was a practical astronomer; next, that Musæus, the master of Orpheus, made a sphere; thirdly, that the people of Corcyra attributed the invention of the sphere to Nausicaa, daughter of Alcinous, king of the Phæaciens. But the evidence of Chiron's astronomical knowledge is contained in a doubtful passage in a late Greek poet, which, if rightly interpreted, probably has no reference to astronomy at all. Musæus and Orpheus have long been relegated to the regions of pure mythology. The story of the invention of the sphere by Nausicaa has no better foundation than the assertion of a certain female grammarian of Corcyra, who said that Nausicaa invented the ball (*σφαῖρα*), an assertion grounded upon the passage in Homer which describes Nausicaa as playing at ball with her maidens.

The speculations of the various philosophers of the Ionic school who succeeded Thales were various and discordant; but they gradually prepared the way for more exact observations. Eudoxus of Cnidos, who lived about 406 to 380 B.C., who was junior to Plato and senior to Aristotle, is considered by Sir G. Lewis as the father of scientific astronomical observation in Greece. He is stated to have gone to Egypt with Chryseippus the physician, carrying with him letters of recommendation from Agesilaus to Nectanebas, king of Egypt. He remained in Egypt sixteen months, shaving his eyebrows after the native fashion. He made astronomical observations not only in Asia Minor, but in Sicily and Italy. His observatory at Cnidos was extant in the time of Posidonius, the early contemporary of Cicero. He is related to have lived on a high hill, in order to observe the stars; and is reported to have said that he would willingly suffer the fate of Phaethon, provided he could approach near enough to the sun to enable him to discern its figure and magnitude. He mapped out the heavens, and propounded a theory for explaining the periodic movements of the planets, which ultimately assumed the form of the Ptolemaic system of the world.

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To Aristarchus of Samos, who lived in the first half of the third century B.C., is due the credit of having proposed a theory of the world exactly similar to the Copernican. It is remarkable that this hypothesis was deliberately rejected by Archimedes. The greatest name of all amongst the astronomers of antiquity is that of Hipparchus, a native of Bithynia, who lived about 190 to 120 B.C. He determined with accuracy the motions of the sun and moon, and arrived at a method of predicting eclipses. He framed a catalogue of the stars, of which he enumerated one thousand and eighty, and determined their places with reference to the ecliptic by their latitudes and longitudes. To him is due the discovery of the precession of the equinoxes. "When," says Delambre, "we consider all that Hipparchus invented or perfected, and reflect upon the number of his works and the mass of calculations which they imply, we must regard him as one of the most astonishing men of antiquity, and as the greatest of all in the sciences which are not purely speculative, and which require a combination of geometrical knowledge with a knowledge of phenomena to be observed only by diligent attention and refined instruments." From Hipparchus to Ptolemy, a period of about three hundred years, the science of astronomy made little or no progress. The life of Claudius Ptolemy, a native of Egypt, extended from about A.D. 100 to A.D. 170. His great work, known by its Arabic title of *Almagest* (*μείγιστον*), presents the Greek astronomy in its most advanced state; and it remained the sole and indisputable authority until modern science commenced its career. Founded upon the views of Hipparchus, who, like Archimedes, had rejected the heliocentric theory of Aristarchus, it explained the planetary motion by a theory of great intricacy, and which led a king of Spain to remark that, had he been consulted before the creation, he could have recommended a less complex system. It was reserved for Copernicus to show that the intricacy of planetary movements was apparent only, and that, rightly viewed, the solar system really presents the utmost simplicity.

The history of Greek astronomy from Thales to Ptolemy covers a period of nearly eight hundred years; that of modern astronomy from Copernicus to the present time not three hundred. When we compare the results at which the ancients arrived, with those which modern science has attained, it is not without reason that we congratulate ourselves on our superior position as regards knowledge merely. But, as Sir G. Lewis observes,

"The Copernican system of the universe, and its subsequent completion by the Newtonian theory of universal gravitation, have had a purely scientific value, and have exercised scarcely any practical influence upon the affairs of mankind. The reform of the Julian calendar, under the auspices of Pope Gregory, in the year 1581, was only a short time subsequent to the publication of the hypothesis of Copernicus, and was promoted by astronomers who held the Ptolemaic system. This reform of an error amounting only to 11' 12" in a year brought the calendar to perfection; the annual measure of time has received no improvement since the modern astronomical revolution. With regard to the determination of a ship's place at sea by astronomical methods, the invention of chronometers has been far more important than any improvements in astronomical theory. If the ancients had known the telescope and the clock, their scientific methods would have sufficed for nearly all practical purposes, although they might have held to the geocentric hypothesis."

There are, however, profounder relations be-

tween man's knowledge and his moral being than those which only extend to the ordinary transactions of commerce and daily life. The guiding star of modern culture is the idea of knowing truly all that pertains to this universe, whether in past time or in the present. The strong instinct of knowing has taken possession of the races most advanced in civilization, and is urging them onward with an energy of intellectual life, compared with which, that of the ancients was stagnation. The turbulent existence of the Greeks and Romans did not allow them to extend their inquiries much beyond matters the most obviously bearing upon the daily exigencies or enjoyment of life, and they showed a wonderful indifference to a variety of subjects of exploration, which are now cultivated by hundreds of industrious inquirers with ceaseless and self-denying assiduity. Though the writers of antiquity constantly speak with respect and wonder of the knowledge of the nations of Africa and Asia, who had preceded them in civilization by centuries, yet they took exceedingly little pains to inform themselves accurately of what these peoples really knew and did. The most contented themselves with perpetually retailing the scraps of more or less credible information which a few inquirers more zealous than the rest had picked up. It may well appear incredible to us that, with full means at their command of acquiring from the Egyptians a knowledge of their language and of the records which this knowledge must have laid open, the Alexandrian scholars, in the most flourishing period of their school, scarcely made any attempt to do this worthy of the name. With regard, indeed, to the astronomical knowledge of the Egyptians, about which the Greek authors talk so much in vague terms, Sir G. Lewis concludes, and perhaps with reason, that it was of a very imperfect and inexact kind, and that the Greek astronomers found it practically useless. "The science of Egypt, like the wealth and power of Persia, was found by the Greeks to be a nullity, when it became the subject of certain knowledge and observation, and they were admitted behind the scenes—'Minuit præsentia famam.'" There is certainly no direct evidence to the contrary of this supposition, as modern discovery has brought to light no Egyptian treatise on astronomy; but the brilliant period of the Egyptian mind had long passed away when the Alexandrian school arose, and the literature of the past slumbered in the libraries of Thebes and Heliopolis, known only to a few priests of archaeological propensities, the depressed representatives of a once flourishing school of busy thinkers and writers. With the exception of Eratosthenes, hardly an instance is mentioned of a Greek who took the trouble to learn the language and explore for himself such works as undoubtedly did exist. The extreme inaccuracy of the reports of Greek writers upon the language and mythology of Egypt, which is now capable of demonstration, leads us to be careful of drawing any inferences from their silence. Without, however, pretending to vindicate for the early Egyptians an advanced knowledge of astronomy, we must dissent altogether from Sir G. Lewis as to the scope and value of their literature, and more particularly of their historical remains. Time has preserved to us abundant materials for recovering large portions of that history, of which the Greeks, who might have had it entire, were content to hand down in careless confusion a few miserable fragments.

These materials are the monumental sculptures and inscriptions with which the Nile-valley is filled, and the papyri which the tombs



have supplied,—a mere handful indeed, but from which inferences may be fairly drawn as to what must once have existed. Sir G. Lewis devotes an elaborate chapter to an attempt to shake the faith of mankind in the results at which Egyptologists profess to have arrived from these sources; it is the least satisfactory, but not the least important of the work, because should the attempt be considered successful, we must be content to relinquish a large store of knowledge concerning the early history of one of the most remarkable nations of the world, which we had fondly hoped to possess, and must be thrown back upon a sea of hopeless ignorance very uncomfortable to contemplate. It was not without profound astonishment that we found our author coming to the conclusion, that "taking into consideration all the evidence respecting the buildings and great works of Egypt extant in the time of Herodotus, there is no sufficient ground for placing any of them at a date anterior to the building of the Temple of Solomon, 1012 B.C."

The method pursued by Sir G. Lewis to overthrow the supposed historical results of Bunsen, Lepsius, and other inquirers, is first to array in hostile columns the statements of Herodotus, Manetho, Eratosthenes, and Diodorus. That the utmost discordance prevails between these accounts is sufficiently well known. All these schemes profess to be derived from authentic sources, namely, records preserved by the Egyptian priests. "They cannot be reconciled," says our author, "by any legitimate methods of criticism, and yet there is no satisfactory ground for preferring one to another. We are not entitled to assume that any one of our authorities was intentionally deceived by the priests, or that he reported or transcribed his information incorrectly. Having therefore no sufficient reason for selecting any one of these systems, we are compelled, by the laws of historical evidence, to reject them all."

To this we answer, that there is a reason for preferring one of these accounts to the rest. The work of Manetho, a native Egyptian, who professes to write from actual knowledge of the ancient records of his country, and for the express purpose, it appears, of contradicting the confused accounts of Herodotus, would seem *prima facie* entitled to more consideration than those of Greeks, who picked up from the priests a few entertaining anecdotes, but were unable to consult at leisure the originals from which these were drawn. The list of Eratosthenes is said to have been taken by him from Egyptian sources, and he appears to have been acquainted with the language; what remains of him is a much corrupted fragment, which is certainly not easy of reconciliation with Manetho. The suggestion at once presents itself that it may have been taken from some pedigree of kings, like that at Karnak, which neither gives a complete list of all who reigned in Egypt, nor places those which it gives in their chronological order, as ascertained from other and indisputable sources. Manetho, as we know, professed to give a complete and methodical list, though the names of the greater part have not been handed down to us, and the views of the writer as to the chronology and sequence of the dynasties are quite obscure to us.

But the most important point is, that making allowance for infinite corruptions in details as to names and numbers, Manetho's account is found to be confirmed in essential particulars, by the multitudinous contemporary monuments which have been inspected, and more or less completely interpreted. It affords a frame into which the results of monumental

research can be easily fitted,—nor does it, of itself, offer any incredibilities. Manetho's history, from Menes to Alexander, embraced, according to the writer's view, a period of three thousand five hundred and fifty-five years, or one hundred and thirteen generations—a much more moderate amount than that assigned by Herodotus and even Diodorus. He gives however lists of kings, the length of whose reigns added together make a much larger sum than three thousand five hundred and fifty-five. The obvious suggestion is, that some of the kings or dynasties which he records were contemporaneous, and, in fact, the monuments abundantly confirm this. The dynasties from the eighteenth to the last downwards, are now almost completely restored from undeniable monumental evidence, with minute details as to many of the kings, their families and connections. The discoveries of M. Mariette in the Serapeum at Memphis, in the inscriptions of which long pedigrees are recorded, have furnished the means of doing this with regard to the dynasties contemporary with Solomon, Rehoboam, and the later kings of Judah. With regard to the dynasties preceding the eighteenth, more obscurity prevails. But the monuments do not desert us even here. Of some periods of the early Egyptian history the memorials are abundant and conclusive; of others we get but a glimmering of light through a few fragments of a papyrus, preserved in the Museum of Turin, which, had it been entire, would have undoubtedly given us the views entertained by the writers of the nineteenth dynasty as to the history of their country. From what remains of it we can see that it contained a copious list of kings (between two and three hundred), with the length of the reign of each in years, months, and days, and also, it is highly probable, a chronological adjustment of the whole, reckoned by the lapse of time from Menes, the first mortal king.

With such a document as this before us, it is quite needless to suppose with Sir G. Lewis that Manetho was a mere impostor like Geoffrey of Monmouth. Whether his chronological views were absolutely correct or no, we care not; but we cannot doubt that he gave such information concerning the ancient dynasties as had been handed down in records from much earlier times; and, as affording useful indications of the views of earlier writers, we value his remains. To look to Manetho, as we at present possess him, for more than this is useless. Accurate investigation of the monuments, in those eras which most abound in them, and of which the indications are most lucid, show that no reliance whatever can be placed upon the names or numbers in the Manethonic fragments. The work is a ruined temple, of which a few defaced and dilapidated columns have been alone left standing here and there; many stones have been carried away, many places heaped over with rubbish, some parts officiously and clumsily repaired, for the purpose perhaps of sheltering some petty chronological theory. Enough only remains to convince us that Egypt had once a written history, methodically arranged, more or less copious; and that abundant materials existed for giving accuracy to such a history, we can see with our own eyes in the present day.

In fact, the task of modern science has been to reconstruct from the tombs, temples, and monuments, that series of annals which, if Manetho's complete work, or the papyrus of Turin, yet unbroken, had reached us, we should have found ready done to our hands. Admitting that the remnants of Manetho, unconnected with other memorials, would have been a docu-

ment upon which little reliance could be placed, yet, taken in conjunction with the contemporary records which remain to us, they are of the highest interest and importance.

But Sir G. Lewis disputes the value of the monumental records of Egypt, because he contends they cannot be satisfactorily deciphered. This part of his argument ought to have come first, but he has placed it last; and we follow him in the plan he has adopted, without comprehending why he has employed a method which we must designate as sophistical. If modern scholars can really make use of the monuments to any good purpose, all the preliminary discussion in which he endeavours to convince the reader that Egyptian history is a hopeless heap of confusion, becomes utterly worthless.

Now the arguments adduced against the validity of the interpretations offered by Egyptologists are principally of a negative kind. The Etruscan and Lycian inscriptions have baffled the ingenuity of inquirers, therefore the investigations of hieroglyphics are not likely to have succeeded better. The accounts given by a few Greek writers as to the nature of hieroglyphical writing are at variance with the system of Champollion. The followers of Champollion have not been eminently successful in pursuing the path pointed out by their great leader, and the results at which he himself arrived must be regarded as premature, and open to suspicion. The tradition of the Egyptian language has been lost; and supposing that the sound of words hieroglyphically written can be ascertained, the modern Coptic cannot be relied upon to furnish their meanings. The long duration assigned to the hieroglyphic system without material alteration is improbable. If the Greeks and Romans had been informed that important historical records existed upon Egyptian buildings, or in the archives of Egyptian temples, is it likely that, during their supremacy in Egypt, they should not have taken steps for procuring translations of them? and can we suppose that the secret of reading them would have been left to modern archaeologists to open, more than fifteen hundred years after the key had been lost?

To all objections of this kind the answer is, an actual study of the Coptic and of Champollion's grammar will hardly fail to convince an attentive inquirer, first (what of itself is the most probable supposition); that the Coptic is really the representative of the ancient Egyptian, as Italian represents the old Latin, or modern English, Anglo-Saxon; and next, that Champollion has really succeeded in marking out the leading features of the old language, as contained in the hieroglyphical inscriptions, read by his system. In the cases of the Etruscan and Lycian, the modern dialect of those countries does not represent the earlier one, and philologists are compelled to look all over the world for languages which may haply be connected with those that have been lost. The remains of these two languages are likewise quite minute, when compared with the stores of Egyptian that are preserved. The reason for believing in Champollion's system is the coherency and intelligibility of the results which it produces, and which now extend over a very large area. When it becomes possible by its assistance to interpret a whole book, not a few lines merely, intelligibly and consistently, no room is left for doubt that we are in the right path, whatever small differences may exist between different interpreters as to certain details. The Greeks and Romans knew very well that the works of the temples were covered with legends of the Pharaohs. But they were superfluously careless of gaining any

exact information about them. Sir G. Lewis, without the slightest ground that we can see, declares the priest who interpreted Egyptian inscriptions at Thebes to Germanicus to have been an impostor, while he admits that Germanicus and his attendants must have believed that the art of interpretation was still possessed by the priests. The disciples of Champollion can read these very inscriptions yet on the walls of the temple where Germanicus saw them, or in the museums of Europe to which some of them have been removed, and can attest that they see in them substantially the same accounts as those given by the priest, while they can detect the blundering confusion made by the reporters of Germanicus's suite, between the different kings whose exploits are recorded, and in which blunders we may be sure the Egyptian interpreter had no share. That these inscriptions do contain something which may properly be called history, there are enough judicious scholars in Europe to attest. The minute annals of the expeditions of Thothmes III. giving account of the nations he visited each year of his reign, and the spoils and tribute he brought home, are surely as much historical records as anything which the past has transmitted to us. What Sir G. Lewis means by asserting broadly that the Egyptians, participating in the Oriental type, had writing, but no literature or history, we are at a loss to imagine. What Oriental nation is alluded to as possessing neither literature nor history? Those of the Babylonians, Assyrians, and Phœnicians have been lost, but there is much reason to think that they once existed. The literature and history of the Hebrews remain, enough to show us what we have lost. What, too, does our author mean by saying that Egypt was a country in which there was neither freedom of thought nor activity of mind; which produced nothing useful and contributed nothing to the progress of mankind? All antiquity and all modern research combine to show that the very reverse of all this was the case.

Time and the progressive researches of archaeologists must eventually show how much the Egyptians really knew of exact science. Perhaps not much. But they had certainly early attained to a great amount of practical knowledge and skill in all the arts which are useful to life. The Greeks began all afresh, and seem to have had so much to occupy their thoughts that they had little time to spare for minute inquiries into the past. Modern intelligence has a wider scope, more leisure, and better methods and appliances. To learn and reduce into order all that can be known as to the progress and acts of humanity is a great and noble task, which remains for us, "the heirs of all the ages." Let us go forward, using scepticism as a shield to ward off the darts of error, but not to screen our eyes from any ray of truth that may gleam upon us out of the past.

*Lives of Wits and Humourists.* By John Timbs, F.S.A. Bentley.

It is a misfortune to be behind one's age, and a dangerous distinction to outstrip it; but happy the man who can just head the advancing crowd. Nominally the leader, but really the representative of public opinion, he is at once sure of sympathy and fame. Though his may not be the proud position of those, who, like Mr. Montgomery's avenging spirits, "burst from their bonds and battle with the time;" yet the grateful sense of security, and the consciousness of fruitful labour may well reconcile a philosopher and philanthropist to a

lower niche in the Temple of Fame. Mr. Timbs has long been known as a philosopher, and by the volumes before us he has added one more to his many laurels. The great eclectic, the patriarch of the paste-and-scissors school, the arch-apostle of anecdote, has now come forward as a philanthropist. "If you love your readers, and wish to be read," says Mr. Han-nay, "get anecdotes;" and to this advice we are indebted for eight hundred pages of benevolence. However, it is less as a philosopher and a philanthropist than as a representative man that Mr. Timbs interests us. The present generation is reaping the secondary results of the strong reaction which, before this century was out of its teens, set in against classical literature, or the classical curriculum as it was then invariably styled. In education, as in politics, Freedom and Reform were the watchwords of the day. Children were to share with Roman Catholics and Dissenters the blessed privileges of an enlightened age. Hexameter and pentameter, like Pope and Pagan in Bunyan's allegory, were no longer to bar the young pilgrim's progress to the realms of knowledge, and with their tyranny were to perish all the barbarities which had disgraced it. The birch was to take its place by the side of the thumbscrew and the rack; children were allowed to address their fathers by some title less awfully reverential than "Sir," and were not threatened with disinheritorship if they ventured to sit down in the parental presence. Knowledge not only smiled in the school-room, but even walked with affable garrulity about the playground, preaching pleasant sermons on such delightful texts as battledore and ball. Walks became geological, breakfast an excuse for learned dissertations on Confucius and the sugar-cane, and swimming, skating, and dancing, convenient opportunities for illustrating the wondrous mechanism of the human frame. In fact, so strongly did the powder flavour the jam, that the generation, thus cunningly dosed, altogether lost its sweet tooth, and when its turn came round to occupy the professorial chair, and mould the rising mind, forgot the very existence of such a commodity. The natural consequence was, a greedy return to the original unadulterated article. Albert Smith, who understood the pleasure-seeking public as well as most men, declared that he had been obliged to relinquish as hopeless all thoughts of instructing an audience who had not any nobler ambition than to be indulged in a hearty laugh. This doctrine has been adopted by all the most successful caterers for applause and cachinnation. Now it seems that we are going even a step further. The taste for jam has developed to such a morbid extent that some vitiated palates and impaired digestions can eat nothing else. If, therefore, the exigencies of the century demand a certain amount of information, such information must be somehow adapted to the sugar-market. This cry for provisions, at once substantial and sugary, has created a new class of confectioners, at the head of which stands in proud pre-eminence, Mr. Timbs. Under his dexterous manipulation, useful information lays aside its terrors, and assumes the alluring garb of light and easy literature. In spite of the proverb, we gather figs from thorns and grapes from thistles. It is not easy to say how far we might be carried by our admiration of the daring and inventive genius which has effected this compromise, if admiration were not swallowed up in astonishment that such a compromise should be necessary. What must be the mental conformation of people who require to be coaxed to read the lives of such men as Swift and Sheridan? and

if there are always to be found benevolent purveyors ready to minister to their necessities, where will the system end? Shall we, thirty years hence, have another philanthropist advertising a short and spicy selection from the works of that profound but ponderous compiler, John Timbs?

The disadvantages and inconveniences of the plan Mr. Timbs has adopted are too obvious to require notice. He has struggled manfully against them, and owes probably to his experience a far larger share of success than would have fallen to most men in the same attempt. We have no doubt that the book is popular, and considered very good reading among the majority of Mr. Mudie's subscribers, and at more than this their author can scarcely aim. Besides, he has the satisfaction of reflecting that his failures are inseparable from his system, while his success is all his own. Not the least amusing of these failures is the gap which occasionally occurs in a biography, just as the hero or hero's friends have arrived at a crisis, for the solution of which the tortured reader looks in vain. If a man's history is to be given only through the medium of all the stories, adventures, and jests known about him, it is very clear that a great deal of it must be suppressed. For instance, after you have been called on to participate in a quarrel between the hero and his intimate friend—a quarrel full of pointed sarcasm and smart repartee—you must not murmur, however great may be the interest you feel in their future relations, at being refused admittance to a matter-of-fact reconciliation in which there is no point, no repartee. You must beware lest one of the subordinate characters—say the hero's butt, partner, or younger brother, excite your unlawful sympathy. Unless the hero cracks a joke over the coffin, or steps wittily drunk into the mourning-coach, you will never know whether your favourite died of a broken heart or the scarlatina. Foote has indeed rescued one obscure skull from oblivion, and Sheridan has immortalized the funeral of Richardson, but there are very few for whom a pun has thus obtained from Mr. Timbs the right of resurrection. Besides, the skull on which Foote punned was that of a very intimate friend who had an unusually strong claim on him. We read that on hearing of Sir Francis Delaval's death, he burst into tears, and refused for two days to admit any one to his room. On the third day he mustered up courage to ask, with swollen eyes, "What time the burial would take place?" "Not till next week, Sir," was the reply; "the surgeons are first to dissect his head." "What do they expect to get there?" said the disconsolate Foote; "I have known poor Frank's head these five-and-twenty years, and I could never find anything in it." The story told of Sheridan in connection with Richardson's funeral is so strikingly characteristic, and so illustrative of his extraordinary powers of unpunctuality and persuasion, that, in spite of its improbability, we are inclined to believe it true. It certainly rests on better testimony than a vast number of the jokes and eccentricities of which Sheridan has been made the hero. The story is, that being invited to attend a funeral, he arrived too late; but that he actually succeeded in persuading the clergyman to perform the ceremony over again in order that he might have the opportunity of paying the proper tribute of respect to his deceased friend. It is not said whether the body was disinterred in order to give full theatrical effect to the most telling part of the service, but we have no doubt that Sheridan's emotion was exactly proportioned to the occasion.



But all men are not so fortunate in their funerals, still less in the ordinary incidents of their career; and we can fancy a reader who goes for information as well as for amusement to Mr. Timbs's book, sometimes most comically tantalized. Even if a man's life could be hashed up in a dish of well-spiced anecdotes, it would require nothing less than a forty-Boswell-power to supply the requisite materials. In Sheridan's life Mr. Timbs has left a gap which must prove a painful trap for the unenlightened. It is even more trying than the sensation novels, published piecemeal, in which for a month the heroine remains with the ruffian's dagger at her throat, or the hero is kept on his knees before the haughty and capricious creature to whom he has just put the momentous question. In these we are, sooner or later, invited to a scene of despair, of rapture—Waterloo Bridge or Hanover Square. But Mr. Timbs's account of Sheridan's flirtation with the lovely Pamela resembles one of these conundrums popularly known as "sells," in which the point consists in the conundrum having no answer. We are indebted for the mention of the courtship to its having commenced in a very promising practical hoax. To prevent the young lady and her mother from returning to Paris, Sheridan bribes the postboys to take them some twenty miles or so out of the Dover road, and to behave in so strange and unprofessional a manner that the ladies are terrified into a rapid return to London. Sheridan, who is on the look-out for them, holds a mock court, elicits a mysterious and appalling confession from the guilty postboys, and altogether works so ingeniously upon the imagination of his victims, that they eagerly embrace his proposal that they should postpone their return to Paris until he is able to accompany them. He carries them off in triumph to his country-house, keeps them there in very pleasant captivity for a month, and then formally proposes for the hand of the fair Pamela. The young lady accepts him, and it is agreed that, after a short stay in Paris, she should return to England, and the marriage take place without further delay. Here is a very pretty beginning for a love-story, and doubtless many a fair reader, who has heard just enough of Sheridan to know that he never married a French lady with a romantic name, is on the eager look-out for a full and particular history of that most interesting of all literary relics—a broken courtship. What, then, will be her disappointment to find nowhere else in the book the slightest allusion to Pamela's name; but, instead of it, a calm and cold-blooded announcement of Sheridan's marriage to Miss Ogle? She has not even the melancholy consolation of hearing that Ariadne soon found a consoler, being afterwards married, if we remember rightly, to Lord Edward Fitzgerald, who, curiously enough, was the most favoured of Mrs. Sheridan's numerous admirers.

Perhaps, after all, the most serious objection to Mr. Timbs's plan is that about such men as Swift, Sheridan, Hook, and Sydney Smith, you cannot get any story worth the telling which has not earned by age and long services an honourable grave in the pages of Joe Miller. Our great wits and humourists are so few in proportion to the number of hungry and heavy Englishmen who are obliged to dine out upon them, that they have scarcely left a stray joke which has not been picked to the bone. Mr. Timbs, although, by a stretch of courtesy, he admits to Swift's society the two Colmans, and James and Horace Smith, cannot get for his resurrection pie even a baker's dozen of wits, and what are these among so

many? Their sayings have been quoted, adapted, pilfered, parodied, until their very disguises are well known to us. If Mr. Timbs had concluded his list, as he very well might, with Douglas Jerrold, it is possible that a few novelties might have been brought to light, but we will undertake to say that by this time there is not a good joke of Sydney Smith's which has not reached its twentieth edition. On the other hand, whatever may be the objections to which Mr. Timbs's plan is open, it has one great recommendation which will, in the eyes of many, alone suffice to counter-balance them. By bringing so closely together our great humourists, it enables us to compare them, and makes each throw some light upon the other. We do not fully appreciate Barrow's famous many-sided definition of wit, until we consider to what utterly distinct and indeed opposite orders of intellect a reputation for wit has belonged. Swift has not left us many sayings at all worthy of the towering reputation which he has achieved with his pen, but still a few survive bearing a strong resemblance to the clear-cutting irony which lends so much vigour and keenness to his written style. Coleridge described him as "the soul of Rabelais dwelling in a dry place," and perhaps the felicity of this description has never been surpassed. He seems to have had the power of seeing everything in a light at once humorous and true, and hence the marvellous simplicity of his style. When a clergyman complained of the dilapidated state of his church, "Give it," said Swift, "to the Papists; when they have repaired it, you can take it away again." Take his famous answer when some one proposed to him, as a toast, "The trade of Ireland." "Sir, I drink no memories." How homely, yet happy, his description of the stoical scheme for supplying our wants by lopping off our desires, when he says that "it is like cutting off our feet when we want shoes." Even about his hoaxes and practical jokes there is the same mien of mock simplicity. When he was bored by a number of persons who had assembled round his house to see an eclipse, he got rid of them by ordering the crier to announce that the eclipse had been put off by command of the Dean. What a contrast between his sharp short thrusts, and the elaborate polish and sparkle of Sheridan! One dazzles, while the other runs you through. Take as an instance Sheridan's answer when Lord Derby applied for the arrears of his wife's salary—"My dear lord, this is too bad; you have taken from us the brightest jewel in the world, and you now quarrel with us for a little of the dust she has left behind her."

The smart sayings of Foote, like his coarse caricature and broad buffoonry, derived most of their point from their personality. Perhaps the best thing he ever said was his famous reply to the Duke of Cumberland. "Well, Foote," said the Duke, "here I am, ready, as usual, to swallow all your good things." "Really," answered Foote, "your Royal Highness must have an excellent digestion, for you never bring any up again." His joke on his friend Delaval's head we have already mentioned, and his description of Holland's funeral pairs off very well with it. Holland was the son of a baker, but taking to the stage, he became well known, both personally and professionally, to Foote. He died suddenly, and Foote, who was appointed in his will legatee and one of the pall-bearers, attended the corpse to the family vault at Chiswick, and, as on the former memorable occasion, was "affected even to tears." On his return to London, he was asked whether Holland had been buried.

"Yes, poor fellow," said Foote, "I have just seen him shoved into the family oven."

Wit has its moral as well as its intellectual side, and the contrast intellectually between the wit of Sheridan and that of Swift, is not greater than the contrast morally between Foote's wit and that of Sydney Smith. Foote spared nobody. He was utterly regardless of the pain which his unabashed impudence and matchless powers of caricature enabled him to inflict on his victims. He would play with his wretched butt as a cat plays with a mouse, and prolong his misery by elaborately ridiculing some one whose name he declined to give, and with whom the sufferer dreaded every moment to be identified. In this way it is said he kept poor Garrick in torture for a full hour by an exquisitely ludicrous description of a most wonderful actor he had just seen. The actor eventually turned out to be Pitt. By the way, it was at Garrick that some of his best, and, as a consequence, most personal jokes were levelled. Garrick's parsimony was a never-failing theme for his ridicule. When some one asked, in reference to a theatrical squabble, why Garrick did not take the beam out of his own eye before attacking the mote in other people's, "He is not sure," said Foote, "of selling the timber." Another occasion he dropped a guinea, and Garrick, after joining him in a fruitless search for it, conjectured that it must have "gone to the devil." "Well said, David," replied Foote, "let you alone for making a guinea go further than anybody else."

In Sydney Smith's wit, on the other hand, no feature is so peculiarly his own as its geniality. A fearless and zealous reformer, he never hesitated to direct his exquisite satire against pretension and imposture, whether displayed by individuals or sects. But in private life no humourist has combined so much power with so much moderation. With an unlimited faculty of covering whatever he pleased with ridicule, he was scarcely ever known to say an ill-natured thing. This reflects almost as much credit on his head as on his heart; for it is not often that a humourist can afford to dispense with a weapon so effective as personality.

Our limits will not allow us to pursue our comparison any further. To those who wish to study in a small compass the points of contrast and resemblance between such very different wits and humourists as Swift, Steele, Goldsmith, the two Colmans, Sheridan, Porson, Sydney Smith, Hook, and James and Horace Smith, we may recommend these two closely-packed volumes of Mr. Timbs.

*Galileo Galilei, sa Vie, son Procès et ses Contemporains.* Par Philariète Chasles. Paris: Poulet Malassis.

It is somewhat discouraging to reflect how much time and labour are occupied, not in the direct establishment of positive truth, but in the demolition of mere error. We have heard of a man spending one half of a life in destroying a reputation which the other half had been employed in building up. Similarly it seems as if the principal employment of the historians and biographers of our generation were to overthrow all the opinions and decisions which have been current and undisputed among all who have gone before us. The general tendency of this sentiment is to show that men of the worst reputation were not so black as they have been painted. Mr. Froude glorifying Henry VIII., M. Louis Blanc making a hero of Robespierre, and Mr. Dixon

clearing the tarnished fame of Bacon, are quite recent instances. But there are other names in history which our posterity will have learnt to regard with a tithe of the reverence paid to them by our fathers. Martin Luther will scarcely be so illustrious in the estimation of the learned as he has been up to within the last twenty years. And in the volume now before us a stately reputation is laid low by the stroke of keen and irresistible criticism. Galileo, a name hitherto worshipped with religious admiration by the Protestant and the philosopher, will henceforth be ranked with "the wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind," and held up as a conspicuous instance of the frequent combination of intellectual strength with moral feebleness.

M. Philàrète Chasles has performed a task which is at best thankless and unwelcome at the present day. Hero-worship has become an established article in the orthodox creed. The withdrawal of one who fills so eminent a place as Galileo in the rather scanty army of philosophic martyrs, will seem an ungenerous office; while to others the vindication of the Inquisition from one of the most popular and odious of the manifold charges urged against it, will appear a downright offence, itself almost worthy of inquisitorial punishment. But however repugnant to sentimentalism on the one hand, or to theological bitterness on the other, M. Chasles's monograph is a most important contribution to biographical literature; and although we are pained at the conclusions which it forces upon us, we cannot refuse him all praise for the spirit in which he has arrived at them. M. Chasles has taken nothing at second-hand. His sole authorities have been original documents, principally the letters of Galileo himself. In his interpretation of Galileo's character he has been guided by an ever present consideration of the spirit of the age and country in which Galileo lived; and he shows how the vices of the time had as powerful an influence upon its greatest men as upon the most insignificant. Galileo was destitute of moral strength; an epicurean, and enslaved by social traditions, he had neither heroism enough to defend the truth consistently, nor tact enough to baffle the devices of his enemies. Uncertain, frightened, equivocating, and fruitlessly compliant, he never displayed that heroic spirit of resistance for which he has been commonly eulogized. He constantly gave way before his foes, and repudiated his doctrines, partly through timidity and Christian gentleness, partly also in the vain hope of appeasing his adversaries and disarming his rivals.

"Galileo himself was corrupted by his epoch; when he gave way to weakness, and involved himself in useless falsehood, he intended to show his obedience to a science superior to his own, that of the world,—the science which Chesterfield preaches to his son in those two base and elegant volumes; that whose code of laws Castiglione had already sketched." A sincere Christian and full of fervent faith, he hoped to reconcile the instincts of his genius with the authority which inculcated implicit obedience. This it was which destroyed him.

From his youth Galileo showed the same double nature, the same incongruous combination of audacity and submission, of zeal for truth and dread of disapprobation. When Professor of Mathematics at Pisa, Jean de Medicis, a natural son of Cosmo I., submitted to him a machine which he had just invented. Galileo publicly criticized the pretended invention, and was banished in consequence. No sooner was he in exile than he became eager to conciliate the offended family. One of the

most important of his telescopic discoveries was that of the satellites of Jupiter. He named them after the Medicis, a servile compliment, which was rewarded by the permission to return to his country. The spirit of this action—a mixture of hardihood and adulation—gives us the key to all the rest of his life. He had gratified his love of outspoken truth by condemning the machine; he had avoided or rather mitigated the penalty of so doing by timely servility. He hoped in after life to manage his relations with the Holy See on the same principle; to promulgate his scientific views, and at the same time remain true to the Catholic faith, and preserve the goodwill of its professors.

The latter half of the sixteenth and seventeenth century in Italy were distinguished by the triumph of every ignoble sentiment; and most triumphant and most ignoble of all was envy. Whoever attained considerable success in any field of investigation, by that very fact became a mark for every less successful man. So utterly enervated and depraved were the times, that envy carried on its machinations almost unresisted. There was no sympathy with virtue, no indignation at malevolence or injustice. Galileo could see all this as clearly as we do now; only the sheerest infatuation could have induced him to ignore it, and in spite of the advice of his friends to leave the country and pursue his investigations elsewhere, to remain where those investigations could only be imperfectly followed, and where the announcement of their results could not fail to involve his ruin. And we must remember that his was by no means that chivalrous infatuation which plunges into danger for the cause of truth, reckless of consequences. It was a kind of fearful perversity not uncommon in weak moral natures. Galileo was not reckless of dangerous consequences. He knew that they awaited his proceedings, and his folly was in supposing that they could be averted by subservience: had he for one moment imagined that this was impossible, he would never have ventured into the arena. All this is clearly shown in M. Philàrète Chasles's narrative of the publication of the famous dialogue of the *Saggiatore*. Towards the end of May, 1630, Galileo, then sixty-six years old, went to Rome to submit the manuscript to the Papal censor, Nicolo Ricciardi, a Dominican. Ricciardi startled at finding in it several expressions which seemed to contravene the decree condemning all discussion of the Copernican theory of the rotation of the earth, "except in a hypothetical manner, and without affirming anything," was reluctant to take upon himself the responsibility of permitting the publication of Galileo's Dialogue, and consulted his colleague, Padre Visconti. Visconti made various expurgations and emendations; and then returned it to the censor, who, two months afterwards, granted the requisite permission for its publication. Galileo overjoyed, returned to Florence. But he found himself opposed by various obstacles. Prince Cési, upon whom he relied for the printing of his volume, had died in August. An epidemic had broken out, rendering all communication between Florence and Rome extremely slow and difficult; so that there was much delay before the permission of Ricciardi could reach Florence, and even when it came it was cautiously provisional. He writes thus to the chief inquisitor at Florence:—"He had," said he, "given the author permission to print it, on the condition that the necessary corrections were made, and that the book was examined afresh afterwards. But the establishment of quarantine regulations had pre-

vented the fulfilment of this latter condition. The Inquisitor might permit its publication at Florence, provided that it treated of purely mathematical considerations on the Copernican system. In any case the book could not put forth any positive statements, but must be confined within the limits of hypothesis; and above all things there must be no discussion about the Holy Scriptures." On the 19th of July Ricciardi sent a number of fresh corrections that were to be made. And at length, after all these twofold precautions, the book appeared. It is evident that what Galileo wished above all things to avoid was the displeasure of the orthodox; and if anything is needed to complete this proof it is found in the preface to the Dialogue itself, in which he goes so far as to pretend to be the foe of Copernicus. "My object," he says, "is to defend the system of Ptolemy; I am an ally of the Cardinals, who have prohibited the teaching of Copernicus, and I entirely approve of their measure. People have been wrong in murmuring against it. If I take up my pen, it is from an excess of Catholic zeal. Enslaving the understanding! It is necessary to clip the wings of the intellect. It is for this reason that I return to the arena, and again come upon the stage of the world; I wish to show at the same time that Italy is awake to the vast resources of human intelligence."

We need not enter into the details of the prosecution which followed the appearance of the memorable volume. There are two common illusions with respect to it, which it has been the endeavour of M. Philàrète Chasles to dispel; first, that Galileo was at all heroic in his conduct under persecution, and, second, that the Inquisition subjected him to torture. He traces the growth of the latter myth, which is based upon a forged document purporting to be a letter from Galileo to his friend Reineri. This paper was forged to hoax Tiraboschi. This celebrated writer, long after the death of Galileo, published the first part of his *Literary History*; whereupon it seemed a clever and useful thing, says M. Chasles, to destroy his credit. The Duke Caetani and his librarian laid a snare for him; and forging the alleged letter gave it to Tiraboschi, who being of an unsuspicious and uncritical nature, inserted it at length in his work. Had the historian been at all careful, he could not have failed to discern from internal evidence that it was not authentic. Why should Galileo narrate all the details found in this document to Reineri who was his bosom friend, and must have been already acquainted with them? Again, the style is unnatural and wholly unlike that of Galileo. Thirdly, it concludes with an impossible anachronism, making Galileo talk about his estate of Bello-Sguardo, which he no longer possessed. Even if the letter were genuine, it contains no expression which can be interpreted without great forcing to mean that Galileo underwent torture. The passage in the Inquisitorial decree on which the charge is founded is equally inadequate; the judges simply say:—"Judicaverimus necesse esse venire ad examen rigorosum tui in quo respondisti catholice." "Examen rigorosum," it has been urged, is a mere euphemism for torture. The enemies of Galileo have more than enough to answer for, without the addition of this odious crime. The malignity of their motives, and the detestable hypocrisy with which they veiled it under pretexts of religious zeal, are only more distasteful to us than the unworthy abasement and equally detestable insincerity which we discover in the letters of the philosopher upon whose overthrow they were bent. It is perhaps difficult to decide whose conduct



fills us with greatest disgust, that of Galileo, that of his enemies, or that of his friends. The feebleness of the first, the malignant envy of the second, and the inconstancy and desertion of the last, are almost equally repugnant; while the whole presents an unparalleled picture of moral decay and corruption, not confined to a few individuals, but pervading the whole age.

M. Chasles gives an effective description of Galileo's humiliation and misery during his confinement in his house at Arcetri. But even this is a relief after the details of the so-called trial. The sun of the philosopher set in clouds and gloom. M. Chasles draws an artistic picture of Milton's visit to Arcetri:—

"There are in the moral sphere certain mysterious sympathies, at once wonderful and touching, which will ever escape us. While, aided by envy, the last efforts of the past and of all ancient institutions gathered themselves up to overwhelm the captive philosopher, the brightness of the new world, of individual conscience and wise liberty, was dawning in England through a thousand errors, a thousand crimes. Milton, the disciple of the ancients and of liberty, serious and gentle, austere and poetical, learned and inspired—he who had already aided the great advance of his country towards liberty of conscience—would not leave Italy without visiting Galileo, and paying homage to the prisoner. Imagine, then, these two noble faces; I know nothing more touching than their contrast. Galileo is blind. The nun, his daughter, the only one left to him, supports him as he totters along, while with his stick he tries to find his way in the garden that he had planted, and of which he is passionately fond. The Italian head seems still to sparkle with the raptures of genius under the white locks which cover it; in the symmetry of the profile, in its graceful contour, in the graceful breadth of a brow which contains the universe, you recognize the majesty of thought and race. A few soft touches, a delicate smile, shades of expression feminine in refinement, betray the man of the world, the son of a society that is exhausting itself in artifices and gaiety. The young Englishman is far more serious. He is characterized by an austere simplicity. His dress is free from all finery; long curling locks, of that golden tinge which has such a peculiar charm, fall over his shoulders, and harmonize admirably with his large, thoughtful, blue eyes, his melancholy, earnest smile, and his pale face, whose purity has never been sullied or changed either by coarse sensuality or violent passion. As they sat together on the slope of the hill, whence Milton could gaze upon Florence, with its marble palaces, its domes, and its bridges over the Arno, what were his thoughts? Had he any presentiment of his future destiny and of that of England? Did any inner voice inform him that one day he, too, should become illustrious, like Galileo—blind like him, like him condemned to isolation in his latter days, and to the reprobation of his contemporaries?"

In one of the letters which M. Chasles has inserted, Galileo lays down a method of viewing the discrepancies between science and Scripture, from which we shall venture to make a short extract, premising that we omit various passages in it, not immediately germane to our object:—

"As for Fromont, I should have wished that in his attempt to refute the system of Copernicus, he had not commenced by sneering at, and bitterly insulting all those who believe in its truth. It seems to me to be highly improper in him to employ the authority of the Bible against his opponents, in order to cry them down, and involve them in a charge of heresy. That this method of controversy cannot be approved of, appears plain to me, for were I to ask Fromont 'Whose works are the sun, the moon, the earth, their positions and their motions, &c.?' I suppose he would reply that they were the works of God. Next, if I ask him from what inspiration do the Scriptures proceed, he will answer, 'From the inspiration of the Holy Spirit,' that is to say from God himself. Hence it follows that the world is

the work, and Scripture the word of God. If I put this other question to him—'Does the Holy Spirit ever make use of expressions which are in appearance opposed to the truth, because they are suited to the coarseness, and proportionate to the vulgar intelligence, of the common people?' he will undoubtedly admit, with the Fathers of the Church, that this is what we find in Scripture; that it is its peculiar style, and that in more than a hundred places the simple literal sense would produce, I do not say heresies, but blasphemies, since God himself is in them represented as being capable of anger, repentance, forgetfulness, negligence, and so on. Shall I ask him whether the Almighty, in order to place His work within reach of the foolish people and without understanding, has ever modified His creation; whether Nature, the servant of God, but indocile to man, has not always preserved the same position, and pursued the same course with respect to the motions, the shape and the disposition of the various portions of the universe? I am convinced that he will answer that the moon has always been a sphere, although for a long time people took it for a white disc; in short, he will confess that Nature has never made any change for us; that she has never amused herself by modifying her works conformably to the desire, the fancy, and the credulity of men. This being so, why in our investigations into the constitution of the universe, should we prefer, as the rule of our inquiry, the word to the work of God? Is the work less perfect and less noble than the word?"

As we close M. Chasles's deeply interesting monograph of Galileo, we cannot but recall the epitaph of Adrian VI.:—"Let a man be never so good, how much depends on the times in which he was born."

#### *The Life of Arthur Vandeleur.* Nisbet.

THIS little work is the biography of a pious Major in the Royal Artillery, and is written by the lady whose *Memorials of Hedley Vickers* had such an extensive circulation.

It is scarcely surprising that the character of the religious soldier should have a strong hold on popular affection. The cause of civil liberty in England is so deeply indebted to the God-fearing warriors of the Commonwealth, and that of religious liberty in Scotland to the Covenanters, that we almost involuntarily associate ideas of conflict for rights and defiance of despotism with the emblem of the "Bible and Sword," and retain our veneration for men of the sort when they represent such principles no longer.

Over and above this, too, there has come down to us from the age of chivalry a high regard for the combination of purity with valour. It was the knightly ideal, and though seldom enough attained, it bore the palm above all other claims. Sir Galahad rode steadfastly on in search of the Holy Graal, and could say with noble self-reliance—

"My strength is as the strength of ten,  
Because my heart is pure."

They were tears of admiration for the same union of qualities that wept the fall of Sir Philip Sidney on the field of Zutphen.

Predisposed, therefore, to do honour to the memory of pious soldiers, the public took an interest in the first memorials of General Havelock, which could not certainly have owed any of its reality to the framework of dissent in which the portrait was set. And we believe many read with curiosity and pleasure the life of Hedley Vickers, who did not fully accept the doctrines of the religious section to which he belonged, and were scarcely able to recognize the sentiments they would doubtless have ap-

proved, by reason of the nomenclature employed to describe them. Encouraged by the success of her former work, the authoress (whom it is divulging no secret to call Miss Marsh) has put together a memorial of another officer, Arthur Vandeleur, who, if of a less robust and hearty character than Vickers, possessed an equally chivalrous disposition, and was, moreover, distinguished by a singular brightness of temperament and an attractive affability which were sources of delight to those who knew him. 'Tis but a simple story. An earnest, inquiring child, an upright, open youth, a thoughtful, active soldier: duties heartily undertaken and courageously carried out: honour steadfastly aimed at and duly won in all the terrific scenes of the Crimea: marriage—decline—an early grave! And yet, simple story as it is, of how few could be recorded a life so self-denying, so consistent, so sustained, so blameless.

In the belief that this volume can do nothing but good, can only fire the young with the ambition of striving for the double wreath of goodness and valour, can only soothe the old with the hope that in this age of struggle for employment, embarking their sons in the profession of arms is not necessarily throwing them into a vortex of frivolity and vice, but perhaps opening out to them an arena for self-denial and consistent uprightness—we cordially recommend the volume.

Purists in taste may find the same faults in these memorials which were found in those of Hedley Vickers; there is the same excess of glow in the language, the same slightly melodramatic arrangement of the subject,—we use this adjective with no desire to offend. Chapters are called, for instance, "The Light Burning," "The Last Sleep," and so on. There is, too, undoubtedly, a free use of that shibboleth which has been so often cast in the teeth of the party especially supposed to employ it. But we believe the truth to be, that all sectional thinkers holding, earnestly, views which are not generally received, are apt to fall into shibboleths. The High Church party use a jargon about discipline and authority which is a shibboleth to those who withhold assent from the theories advocated. Read a work by a disciple of Auguste Comte: you find yourself at once surrounded by a terminology which you consider appropriate, if you acquiesce in the views brought forward, and a shibboleth, if you disapprove. Nor can we deny that there is, in Miss Marsh's volume, a warm enthusiasm which sometimes, we must think, excites her imagination at the expense of her reason. At page 220, a miracle, in answer to prayer, is calmly recorded.

But in reading books written by savans or artists, we are often in the habit of awarding praise with a proviso of this sort,—an excellent work, making due allowances for the predilections of the author. Surely we may concede to religion what we do not deny to science or art,—occasional extravagance.

Between the careers of the two young officers, whose biographies Miss Marsh has compiled, she has drawn attention to a touching difference as regards their end. Vickers fell in the field. The cries of martial ardour, the cheers of approbation rang in his dying ears. An unhealthy garrison matured the seeds of death in Vandeleur. Death came upon him slowly, steadily, but surely. No excitement to drown the gloom of the last hour; no halo of glory to encircle the spectre; no leaf of laurel to mingle with the unwelcome cypress!

*The Education Question.—Revision a Necessity; a Voice from the Unassisted Schools.* By Rev. W. L. Collins, M.A. Blackwood and Sons.

To gain the popular ear to give attention to the subject of education is a matter of no small difficulty. To the majority the subject is essentially a dry one. Hitherto numbers who are immediately interested in certain moneys connected with education, have cried out aloud; and those whose interests are the same, or supposed to be the same, have given heed to the cry. Whether this much speaking has been simply the result of a deep interest in the "cause," or whether it has been influenced by more worldly feelings, we do not presume to say. At the same time, when so much has been said by those who are interested on one side, we are very glad to listen to the voice of one who is interested on the other side. Such a one is Mr. Collins. He comes forward to speak for the unassisted schools. When we state that there are in England 15,932 schools for the poor, containing about 1,280,000 scholars, entirely unassisted by Government; whereas the number of those who receive aid is only 6397 schools, with 920,000 scholars, our readers will agree with us, that it is quite right the majority should have a spokesman, and that his words should be listened to in spite of the din of an uproarious minority. The unassisted schools have an excellent spokesman in Mr. Collins, who first made himself heard through the columns of *Blackwood*, and who has since published his article with a few additions. The interests of the unaided ones are in good hands, and we shall best assist them by leaving them in the keeping of Mr. Collins, whose very judicious remarks we proceed to lay before our readers.

For many years the State has now granted an annual sum for the education of the poor. This sum has advanced from small to large proportions, with very rapid strides. The first grant was made in 1832; it was to the modest amount of £20,000. In 1861 it had grown to £800,000. This tendency to increase is inherent in the present system of distribution. To what extent it would have ultimately developed itself it is impossible to say. According to Dr. Temple it would amount in course of time to five millions. The money so liberally granted has been chiefly expended in three different ways: 1, in grants to aid in building schools; 2, in erecting and maintaining training colleges for teachers; and 3, in augmentation grants, in the way of salary to trained and examined masters, mistresses, and pupil teachers, varying from £6. 13s. 4d. to £30 per annum, according to the class of their certificates.

In consequence of many serious complaints having been made about the expenditure of this large sum of money, and the doubtful results it produced, a Commission was appointed, on the motion of Sir John Pakington, in 1858. The Commissioners appear to have spared no pains to ascertain the true bearings of the case. The ten Assistant Commissioners whom they appointed, and to whom they assigned ten different districts, each district serving as a specimen of different types of population, classed as agricultural, manufacturing, mining, maritime, and metropolitan, were directed to examine personally the state of existing schools, public and private; to collect from reliable witnesses the general state of popular education, and to report the result "with the utmost fulness and accuracy, and without the slightest regard to its bearing, real or supposed, upon any of the questions relating to education which at present occupy public attention." Mr. Collins gives the Assistant Commissioners great

credit for the way in which they have performed their duties. In every case they appear to have shown an honest and conscientious desire to discharge them without favour or prejudice; and in nearly every case they have accomplished their task with an ability and intelligence which fully justifies the Commissioners' selection.

The result of the Report is to a certain extent satisfactory. It proves that education has made, and is making, considerable progress throughout the country, and that this progress is mainly owing to the machinery originated by the Committee of Council. The assisted schools show a marked superiority to the unassisted schools, and the teachers prepared at the training colleges are, in the great majority of instances, more successful than those who have not had the advantages of such training. Consequently, not only has a greater quantity and better quality of education been afforded to the young, but the indirect influence of education has had an appreciable effect upon the parents. Education, we are told, is becoming more and more popular, and even the most illiterate parents are beginning to feel that ignorance is a dead weight in the struggle of life, and are therefore desirous to give their children a fairer start than they themselves have enjoyed. Mr. Fraser's district consisted of the counties of Devon, Dorset, and Hereford, and even there he found that the stolid mind of the British farmer was gradually opening to the influences of civilization; and that the old orthodox time-honoured doctrine that "reading and writing spoil ploughing," was losing its hold. In only two cases was he told that "uneducated labourers make the best slaves."

This is all very satisfactory, and there are many who think it so satisfactory that it is a pity to disturb the present system, and that it would be much better to let well alone. With these the Commissioners do not agree. While allowing that the present system has done much good, they very naturally and very properly ask themselves whether more good could not be done under a different system, at the same cost as the present. They think that it could, and they state very plainly the reasons which have influenced their conclusion.

They place before themselves the object aimed at, and consider how it can be best obtained. The object aimed at is the education of those children of the State whose parents are poor, and the number of these children is reckoned at 2,500,000. The kind of education proposed to be given must be greatly affected by the circumstances under which such children are born, and under which they are probably destined to pass their lives. One of these circumstances is the short period of their existence they can afford to school-training. The Commissioners have come to the conclusion that ten or eleven years of age amongst the boys of the labouring classes must be the general limit of education. Before arriving at this conclusion they have examined scores of competent witnesses—statesmen, philosophers, clergymen, and plain practical men. They have also had before them the valuable evidence of such women as Miss Yonge, Miss Sewell, and Miss Carpenter. All admit the necessity of agricultural boys being removed at so early an age from school. The claims of labour are strong, and it is impossible to resist them. Even in towns, while it is admitted that the demand for intelligent labour will keep children longer at school, the Commissioners still fix the age of eleven years as "the probable limit of education of a large body" of those who are born to labour.

Here, then, is the problem. Given a boy, who is to be "finished" at eleven, what kind of education can be allowed him? Much cannot be done with him before four, therefore the schoolmaster has only seven years in which to deal with him, and from these seven years must be deducted all time spent in bird-keeping, bean-dropping, potato-planting, as well as that devoted to truant playing and to compulsory absence on account of want of weekly pence or shoes. In this brief period the Commissioners are of opinion that a boy may be taught to spell correctly words in ordinary use; to read a common narrative in such a manner as to be a pleasure to himself, and to convey information to others; to write legibly, and to be able to compose an intelligible letter; to cipher sufficiently well to make out, or test the correctness of, a shop bill, to have some notion of the situation and manners of foreign countries, and to know enough of Scripture to follow the "allusions and the arguments of a plain Saxon sermon, and a sufficient recollection of the truths taught in his catechism to know what are the duties required of him towards his Maker and his fellow-men."

Mr. Collins is of opinion that this standard is rather high if a boy is to be removed at ten, but thinks there is abundance of proof that it is easily attainable in the case of boys who remain till eleven. Certainly boys ought to be taught reading, writing, and arithmetic well before they are launched out into the world. If a boy can do this he has in his possession a key by means of which he may get at the varied treasures of knowledge. This is generally the opinion of the parents of boys, and they generally know at which schools these elementary branches are taught best; and those schools are always full, and that in spite of their sometimes being more expensive and inconveniently situated. Unfortunately, under the old system, reading, writing, and arithmetic have not been well taught. Many higher branches of knowledge may have been well taught, but the elements have been neglected. As is not unnatural, the masters have cared more for appearance than reality—they have paid more attention to the frontage than to the foundation of their buildings—they have been diligent in teaching subjects at once more interesting to themselves and more showy in the children than what they themselves term the "drudgery," the "grinding," the "machine-like and monotonous drill" of elementary subjects. The consequence of this is, that whereas many schools are well up in geography, history, and grammar, they are very deficient in reading, spelling, and numeration.

Upon this point there has been no small amount of controversy. Archdeacon Sinclair has come forward to prove that reading, writing, and arithmetic are well taught. To confirm this he has brought forward the reports of the Queen's Inspectors. According to them it appears that of schools under certificated teachers the per centage reported to have been instructed "excellently," "well," or "fairly," was in reading 86.2, in writing 87.9, and in arithmetic 80. At first sight these reports would seem to give the lie to the accusation, that reading, writing, &c. are so badly learnt by the majority. These reports, however, are not so much of the scholars individually as of the schools *en masse*. These are judged by the efficiency of the senior classes, which form a very small proportion of the whole under teaching. All that can be gathered from them therefore is this, that there are many masters well qualified to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic; and that they do teach these sub-



jects well to some few of the boys under their charge. But that the majority of boys do not learn these subjects well is sufficiently proved by the admission of Sir J. Kay Shuttleworth, on the same side, that the obstacles to teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic well, are insurmountable. It is rather curious, as Mr. Collins remarks, that the old system party should quote statistics to prove that *more than four-fifths* are fairly taught already, and should then declare that the obstacles to teaching *three-fifths* are insurmountable.

That it is no easy matter to teach three-fifths the elements well is indisputable. The difficulties are very great. The capricious removal of children from school, their irregular attendance, and the irksomeness of the task, are certainly obstacles. Nevertheless, the Committee of Council say, they must be taught well or the money must be stopped. The present system evidently does not answer—hence a Revised Code.

The distinction between the Revised Code and the old system has been illustrated by the difference which exists between paying for results and paying for means. The Revised Code will pay for results. According to the old system, a master who had gained a certain class certificate received a fixed sum annually from the State; now he will receive nothing unless his children are well taught. The vice of the old system is apparent. A cloud of witnesses attest that frequently the highest certificated masters—those who were drawing the largest share of the State's money—were not the best teachers; very well, says the State, we will not for the future pay you for what you have done once in your life—for simply having passed a good examination—but we will pay you for what you do, and only so long as you do it. To ascertain that the teacher really does his work a searching individual examination is proposed. To effect this the children of all schools are to be divided into four classes:—1, between three years old and seven; 2, between seven and nine; 3, between nine and eleven; 4, between eleven and the time of leaving school. The standard is carefully graduated, till at the last examination the scholar is expected to read “a short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative,” to write down a similar passage from dictation, and to work a sum in practice or simple proportion. According to this plan a bad school will receive no aid at all from Government, whereas it is reckoned that an efficiently-taught school will receive an average of ten shillings for every child under education. For the future, the present complicated system of grants will be abolished, and in every school under inspection where children are taught well, the money of the country will be bestowed.

One charge brought against this system by its opponents is this, that “it discourages boys from remaining at school after eleven.” A falscher charge could scarcely have been preferred. The Commissioners have proved the fact that boys do leave school at or before eleven; and the Committee of Council, perceiving its truth, have endeavoured, in the Revised Code, to remedy its evil consequences. They have recognized the necessity of night schools, and afforded facilities for their establishment and support. Hitherto night classes have had to contend with most serious obstacles. The day school teacher has had his evenings occupied with giving instruction to the pupil teachers. The State has afforded no aid, and the clergyman of the parish, or some philanthropic layman, has had voluntarily to undertake the task of their formation and management. For the future the day

school teacher will not be troubled with his pupil teachers in an evening, and the State will pay for night classes as well as for day classes. According to the Revised Code the night “school,” in the words of Mr. Lingin, “ceases to be a separate institution, and passes as an integral part into the general working of each school.” Hitherto evening classes, in spite of difficulties, have done good service; now, with the encouragement afforded by Government, they will do infinitely more. They supply a great want. They give every boy an opportunity of continuing the education he has commenced in the day school, on the same system as the one to which he has been accustomed. He will have the same master, the same books, the same method; and the master will have an immediate interest in getting his pupils on to the best of his power. To the lessons of the night school every witness examined before the Commission looks with the greatest confidence for carrying on the work of which the day school shall have laid the foundation; and we have little doubt but that their confidence will be fully justified by the result.

The great failure of the old system was, that it did not give the education required. The New Code endeavours to remedy this. Another great defect of the old system was this—its extreme partiality. It will hardly be credited, what is perfectly true, that out of the 2,500,000 children who ought to be at school, there are at present in round numbers 2,200,000 receiving some kind of instruction, while of these only 920,000 receive the benefit of Government aid, no less than 1,280,000 being unaided. While 6397 schools monopolize the whole of the Government grant, 15,932 schools do not receive a penny. The small poor parishes suffer from this. If a school is to be aided by Government, it must be aided on certain conditions, and one of these conditions is that money must be raised first by voluntary effort or the school built on a particular plan, according to enlightened sanitary ideas. Now, in very poor parishes, it is equally impossible to raise the money required, or to have a school built upon the pattern recommended. The consequence is that these places which most want aid never get it. As Mr. Allies remarks, the motto of the old system is, “To him that hath shall be given.” The weak go to the wall. In Herefordshire, two years ago, out of 130 parish schools only 5 received aid; in Devon, 2 out of 245; in Somersetshire, only one out of 280. This is certainly monstrous, and yet to its reality and to its monstrosity also ample witness is borne by most independent witnesses, such as Mr. Lingin, Dr. Temple, Mr. Tuffnell, Lord Lyttelton, the Countess of Macclesfield, Lady Dukinfield, Mr. Penrose, the Hon. Mr. Langdale, Mr. Allies, and others. They one and all agree in establishing this maxim, that it is “a fallacy to say that the present system helps those who help themselves; the poor cannot help themselves in districts where the rich will not help them.” By the New Code, every school will be assisted which proves itself worthy by producing scholars who can satisfy the Examiners on the points to which we have before adverted.

That this New Code, apparent as are the advantages it promises, should be opposed by the certificated schoolmasters is not surprising. Receiving as they do now from £10 to £30 a year as a certainty from Government, whether they do their work well or ill, they object to being dependent upon the efficiency of their performances. That the clergy should also, in the first instance, have raised their voice against it is what might have been expected. It was hinted that religion was in

danger. A Bishop, in his charge, declared “that it had been resolved, at all hazards, to subvert the educational apparatus which worked so powerfully in favour of the National Church;” and a zealous Archdeacon announced at Cambridge that “it was an insidious attempt to get rid of religious instruction.” As a matter of fact, the New Code does not touch the religious question, but leaves it exactly where it was. This many of the clergy now see, and, with Dean Close, withdraw their opposition on that ground. Most disinterested persons, however, will probably agree with Mr. Collins, that though the measure may not be perfect, it is still an honest attempt in the right direction, and the more honest on the part of those who propose it, in that it confesses a failure in the past. Anyhow it is better to accept it, with all its faults, than to return to a system of which a Royal Commission has declared, “that the whole scheme of education was settled, that the school books were prepared, and, above all, that the teachers were trained, upon suppositions as to the age of the pupils, and the opportunities which would be afforded for instructing them, which the facts have not sustained.”

#### SHORT NOTICES.

*Textual Criticism of the New Testament.* By C. E. Stuart. (Bagster and Sons.) This is an attempt to bring textual criticism within the reach of the reader of the English Authorized Version of the New Testament, who may not be acquainted with Greek. Every important variation of reading throughout the New Testament is given, together with a reference to the manuscripts and editions by which each reading is supported. This is done in the compendious way with which the Greek student is familiar enough, but which to some may need explanation. Thus, Matt. ch. viii. ver. 10, “No not,” Gb. Sch. Tis. C E G K L M S U V X r Δ. “In any one,” La. Tre. Alf. B. The meaning of this is, that whereas in the chapter and verse quoted, the editors Griesbach, Scholz, and Tischendorf, together with twelve different manuscripts, denoted by the letters C, E, G, K, &c., are in favour of the words “no not,” instead of these the editors Lachmann, Tregelles, and Alford, and one manuscript, give the words “In any one.” There being this diversity, with authorities on both sides, which then is the reader to prefer? That is not an easy question to decide. Most perhaps will be disposed to side with the most numerous and the oldest authorities, but even this rule cannot always be applied. For instance, in the case above quoted, we find three editors, on the authority of a single manuscript—but that one perhaps the oldest of all—preferring a certain reading to one which three other editors adopt on the faith of twelve manuscripts, all very ancient and of high authority. The preface to this little work contains some brief and useful remarks upon the criticism of the text of the New Testament. The first printed Greek Testament ever given to the world was that of Erasmus in 1516. The manuscripts which he used were comparatively modern ones. He published five editions, with alterations introduced from other manuscripts. The volume of the *Complutensian Polyglott* containing the New Testament was printed in 1514, under the direction of Cardinal Ximenes, at Alcalá, the ancient Complutum, but was not published till 1520. Robert Stephens, the famous Paris printer, published a New Testament in 1546, and gave a third edition in 1550. This was the first edition in which a collection of various readings of any extent was made. The so-called *Textus Receptus* is the second Elzevir edition, published in 1633. Up to this time it appears that few, if any, of the older manuscripts in uncial characters had been collated, and the first attempt was made by Bishop Walton, who, in his *London Polyglott* (1657), gave the readings of the Alexandrian manuscript now preserved in the British

Museum, and which belongs to the fifth century. Not till 1774, or less than a hundred years ago, did a really critically revised text appear—that, namely, of Griesbach. Then came Scholz in 1830, Lachmann in 1831, Tischendorf in 1841, Tregelles in 1844, Alford in 1849. These critics are not altogether agreed as to points of detail, but their object is of course the same, namely, to arrive by the best accessible evidence at the words which the composers of the New Testament really wrote, not at such words as any particular sect or school would wish them to have written. The object of the little work before us is to give the ordinary reader the benefit of their researches, and it may seem strange that any apology should be thought necessary for such a design. The writer, however, seems to fear lest his labours should be looked upon with suspicion, as tending to make men's minds dissatisfied with the existing Authorized Version, much of which will doubtless be found unsupported by good authority. Strange, indeed, that it should be thought necessary perpetually to reiterate that "truth can never suffer by being faithfully set forth," and that readers of the New Testament should require to be reminded that they are not likely to take any harm by knowing what the writers of the book really wrote, so far as that is possible. We wish the little work may meet with the attention and the success it deserves.

*Lectures Françaises; or, Extracts in Prose from Modern French Authors, &c.* By Léonce Stiévenard. (Longmans.) This volume of selections from the French for the use of students, is not materially different from one which we had occasion to notice three or four weeks ago. At that time we expressed our partial disapproval of the system of delectus and the like; but of course we are bound to judge the work by its own pretensions. The distinctive principle on which M. Stiévenard has compiled the present volume is the selection of modern, in preference to the more classical French authors. We doubt how far this plan is likely to work well. It is scarcely so well calculated to impart a thorough knowledge of the genius and strength of the French tongue; though it may be of more value from M. Stiévenard's point of view, as he is desirous chiefly of "giving a knowledge of the language as it is now spoken and written, and to facilitate the acquisition of French conversation."

*Material for translating from English into French.* By L. Le Brun. (Trübner and D. Nutt.) The essay which M. Le Brun has prefixed to the material for translation into French is very sound and instructive; and the writer has accompanied it by copious illustrations, remembering the wholesome fact, *Longum est iter per precepta, breve et efficax per exempla*. The English selections appear to be made with more than common judgment.

*Exercises in Latin Syntax: Part II., The Syntax of the Subjunctive Mood.* By W. S. Kemp, B.A. (A. and C. Black.) The syntax of the subjunctive mood is the *pons asinorum* of Latin grammar. It puzzles the scholar as much as the spheroid bone does the young anatomist. Here is a volume of exercises upon its complicated usages. The examples are sentences translated from Cicero, Cæsar, and Livy, which the pupil has to render back again into their original tongue. We entirely approve of this practice of selecting the examples from the Latin, and not from the English. The true nature of the idioms is much more readily apprehended. Mr. Kemp need scarcely have attempted any apology for the practice of translating English into Latin. If anybody can learn to translate Latin into English without this, he of course may dispense with it; but we know not where such a boy is to be found.

*The Common Sights in the Heavens, and how to see and know them.* By Captain A. W. Drayson, R.A. (Chapman and Hall.) Unless the study of astronomy after a popular fashion is becoming a most popular amusement, we cannot but think that a glut of purely elementary works on the subject must speedily occur. They are issuing from the press in a perfect galaxy. We prefer taking the first view, and supposing that the taste for even a merely rudimentary knowledge of the heavenly bodies, their names, positions, and motions, is widely increasing. Looking upon this kind of study as no more than

pastime, it is at all events pastime of the noblest sort, pastime from which all who indulge in it must come with increased reverence for the universe and its Creator. Captain Drayson's book has nothing very distinctive or novel about it; but the illustrations are highly attractive, and, together with large type, go far to make the study of its contents a pleasure, apart from the inherent charm of the subject.

*Russia, Ancient and Modern.* By the Rev. George Trevor. (Religious Tract Society.) It is well that school-books should be kept up to the highest mark of the various subjects of which they are designed to teach the rudiments; that manuals of geography, for example, should advance with the progress of geographical discovery, and that the rising generation should not be left with no more than the old stock of information which was the best attainable in the days of their grandfathers. Russia is a country of which, fifty years ago, we knew comparatively little, but with which, at the present time, partly owing to the great Napoleonic campaign, partly to our own recent war in the Crimea, and partly to the explorations of travellers such as M. Kohl, we are tolerably familiar. Mr. Trevor's little volume, published under the auspices of the Religious Tract Society, embodies the result of all this recently-acquired knowledge; and if we except a certain amount of feeble but inevitable moralizing upon the darkness of the Russian Church, is, on the whole, worthy of commendation.

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#### FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

LEIPZIG, February.

AMONG the recent publications of the Saxon Royal Academy, or Kön. Sachsische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, which has its seat in this town, there is, as I mentioned in a previous letter, one by Professor G. Hartenstein on Locke's theory of human knowledge as compared with Leibnitz's critique of the same; and I notice it for the sake of its subject rather than for any striking merit of its contents. It is not the first time that the Germans have turned their attention to Locke. Every student of German literature knows how greatly that philosopher was admired by Lessing and Mendelssohn—those twin stars that shed their effulgent rays on the dawn of its second revival; and now, after more than a century has elapsed, his system is again being drawn forth into light, and made the subject of investigation. Thus a very able and lucid *exposé* of it was but a short time since put forth by Schärer; and here we have Hartenstein's treatise, a large octavo pamphlet of a hundred and forty-nine pages, a hundred and forty of which contain nothing but excerpts from Locke and Leibnitz, the English and French texts being appended as foot-notes: and thus a book is made up. This reminds one very much of Bacon's "distilled books," which, as that celebrated essayist says, "are like common distilled waters, flashy things." Unfortunately, such a practice has latterly obtained in Germany to an alarming extent, owing to the prevalent notion that progress in philosophy can only be ensured by the cultivation



of its history,—in other words, by a careful and minute examination of the systems of our predecessors. Thus Zeller and Brandis take us back to the Greeks; and thanks to them in all sincerity, for to the Greek philosophers we must ever return, and Zeller's work especially deserves the highest eulogium as a monument of industry and research; Huber invites us to a study of the patristic philosophers, and, together with Friedleib, of your Irish cousin John Scotus Erigena; Prank, like Huber, Professor in the University of Munich, treats us to a most erudite History of Logic in the West. K. Fischer pours forth volume after volume of the same description; now it is Leibnitz, now Bacon, and now again Kant, whose systems he elucidates and traces to their roots, and pursues in all their ramifications. You, in England, know nothing of this kind of books; the French are more nearly allied to us in this respect. On whose side the advantage here lies I will not undertake to decide. Only this I am sure of, in a creative period we should not hear of such works; but the time for original productions seems, for the present at least, to be gone, and so, meanwhile, we fall back on our predecessors, write histories of philosophy and histories of literature, and feed on the past. The fact is, this is a truly Alexandrian age in which we live. While in material civilization, in which I include the physical sciences in all their various branches, as promotive of it, we are rapidly advancing, lifting high the banner with the Yankee principle "go ahead" inscribed on it for a device, in all the purely intellectual sciences we are acting on a retrograde principle, and, like Lot's wife, looking back on what lies behind us, we are turned into salt-pillars, and remain fixed to the spot. Call it Attic salt, if you so please, nor will I object to the name; for although it is not Attic wit, it is certainly Attic learning with which we—I am speaking of the modern scholars—are saturated; it is Attic ideas with which we are imbued; it is Attic acumen which guides our critical inquiries. But that critical activity is sometimes carried a little too far; ay, we might, in some instances, say it is criticism "run mad." However, it is time to revert to the publication that has led to this digression. Here, then, as I have said, is Hartenstein, asking us to reconsider our opinions of Locke and Leibnitz. We have all been at fault in our conception of their theories. We took Leibnitz to be the opponent of Locke, as regards his doctrine of innate ideas. No such thing. These 149 pages, or rather, I should say, the nine pages of commentary with which they are interspersed, go to show us that there are between the German and the English philosopher more points of agreement than of disagreement, even in the matter of these innate ideas, and that both find true knowledge to rest, not on Psychology, but on Logic, more especially on that law thereof which decides on the admissibility or necessity of the association of ideas according to the proposition of identity and of contradiction. This, briefly, is the result of Hartenstein's laborious investigation. I will not go so far as to say it was labour in vain, but it strikes me that there is here some resemblance to the mountain in labour.

Let me pass on to other topics. The visitors and admirers of the Dresden Picture Gallery will be gratified to learn that Dr. W. Schäfer has just published the third and last volume of his catalogue of the Royal Picture Gallery of Dresden. It is a complete guide, and moreover a capital work of reference for all the lovers of art.

Musical literature is shortly to be enriched by two new publications. The one is an annual of musical science, the first volume to appear at Easter next, and to consist of historical essays, theoretical and æsthetical, reflections and miscellanies. F. Chrysander, the biographer of Handel, is named as the editor. The other is a biography of J. Haydn, to be published by Dr. Mettenleiter, at Ratisbon. This work, too, is to be of a strictly scientific character, and to extend over four volumes, two of which are reported to be ready for the press. The author is said to have spent twenty years in the collection of his material, and to have received assistance on all sides, so that we may expect something complete. At the fifteenth Gewandhaus concert, Carl Davidoff, a native of Russia, and, since a short period, a member of our orchestra, achieved another success

by his masterly performances on the violoncello. The pieces were a Concert-Allegro (B minor), by Bernhard Romberg, and Souvenir de Spaa, by Servais. At the conclusion of the latter the admirable artist was called twice—a rare triumph in that hall. Indeed, it would seem as if the inscription on the wall facing you as you enter by the principal door, *Res severa est verum gaudium*, which is intended as an admonition to aspiring artists, had sunk deep into the minds of the frequenters of the Gewandhaus concerts, and had rendered them severe in their judgment; for, in general, their applause is dealt out in but stinted measure. Nor is this to be wondered at; for the eminent artists that are from time to time heard in this hall have made the audience rather fastidious in their taste, and difficult to please. Of course exceptions have now and then taken place; but Davidoff's success, I assure you, was as genuine as any I have ever witnessed. It will not surprise you, therefore, to hear that when, at a concert recently given by Felix Meritis, at Amsterdam, our young artist made his appearance, he completely electrified our proverbially phlegmatic Dutch cousins, and the same success attended him at the Hague and at Rotterdam. I regret to learn that we are about to lose this excellent artist, in whose praise all the critics are unanimous.

Tischatschek, whom I had occasion to mention in a previous letter, is at present starring it here on our stage, being engaged for twelve nights.

The Lessing commemoration, of which I gave you a brief account, was repeated in our theatre (the festival itself had been celebrated at the Hôtel de Pologne), to meet the wishes, as it was said, of numerous applicants who failed in obtaining tickets to the first commemoration, the said hotel not being large enough to accommodate all who were anxious to do honour to the memory of Lessing. Such a repetition puts one in mind of the well-known anecdote of certain ladies who, having tarried so long at their toilette as to have missed the eclipse of the sun, asked to have it repeated for their special benefit. However, I do not care to raise a laugh where really a good end was meant to be served; for the proceeds are to be devoted to the purchase of a colossal bust, executed by Knauer, of the author of *Laocon*, to be set up in our Museum, and I believe the sum realized will enable the committee of the Schillerverein (for under their management the festival has taken place) to carry out their object. The forthcoming International Exhibition is making almost no less a stir in Germany than in England itself. Strenuous efforts are everywhere being made worthily to represent the industry of the country, the Government supporting these efforts by voting handsome sums towards defraying the expenses incurred. Thus Saxony, with five hundred exhibitors at present announced, will spend twenty thousand thalers; Bavaria, eighty-six thousand florins; Württemberg, thirty thousand; and Prussia, one hundred thousand thalers. Austria is reported to send as many as two thousand exhibitors. Dr. Kerndt, lecturer on technology in our university, is commissioned by the Government of Saxony to go to London for the purpose of reporting on the various articles exhibited, and to render assistance to the Saxon exhibitors. At the same time the central committee for the International Exhibition has appointed him a judge for the 28th class, comprising stationery, paper fabrics of all kinds, printing and bookbinding. The Germans naturally take an especial interest in this great gathering of nations, the original impulse having been given by the late lamented Prince Albert the Good, whom we are proud to call our own.

Of the *Mendelssohn-Bartholdy Letters* a second edition has recently appeared. In the enthusiastic admiration both of the author and of his letters, manifested by the review of the book in the last number of the *Edinburgh Review*, I fully share; nor have I any doubt that Lady Wallace's forthcoming translation will be read with the same avidity and delight by the English as the original has been by the German public. There is, indeed, a rare freshness in these genial effusions of the celebrated composer. The interest is naturally heightened by their being written in the spring of his life—a spring that promised so much, and a life which

though cut off prematurely, yet more than realized all that its spring had promised—and from those ever-charming and classical regions, the home of all that is grand and beautiful, for which every refined mind, every one that has a true "soul" in him will be ever longing, and turn to with a kind of homesickness. It is as if the spirit of music spoke to us from these letters; and, after having perused them, I could not help chiming in with Duke Orsino, and repeat to myself the famous lines—

"That strain again; it had a dying fall:  
Oh, it came o'er my ear like the sweet South,  
That breathes upon a bank of violets,  
Stealing, and giving odour."

In this working-day life such books as this are a true recreation: they come, as if from a better world, to dispel sadness, and to beguile the monotony of existence, and while reading them we breathe forth the wish, "Oh that our end may be like unto thine!"

Buckle's *History of Civilization* continues to occupy the attention of Germany. There is scarcely any journal or periodical that has not had a review of it, or rather of Buge's translation of it, mostly approving the author's views, or at any rate eulogizing his vast research. A. D.

#### NOTES OF THE WEEK.

Since the attention of the scientific world has been attracted to the discoveries of M. Boucher de Perthes in the gravel-beds of Amiens and Abbeville, facts connected with the early history of the human race have continued to turn up, and now show themselves in a very different light from that in which they were formerly wont to be viewed. A most remarkable discovery is announced in the March number of the *Revue Archéologique*, made during last summer, near Laon, in France, in the department of the Aisne. In this locality a bed of lignite is worked for agricultural purposes. This bed lies at the foot of a small hill of the tertiary epoch, at the base of which occur argillaceous strata alternating with the lignite. Above are large masses of sand, including some layers of shells, and over them again come argillaceous beds, while the top of the hill is composed of hard *calcaire grossier*. The lignite bed is reached by subterraneous galleries, which run in different directions beneath the hill, some to a great distance. It is about two metres thirty centimetres in thickness, and is covered by a marly and sandy stratum full of fossil shells (*Cyrena cuneiformis*, *Ostræa bellowacina*, &c.). In last August the workmen discovered a small ball of chalk lying at the top of the lignite bed, and touching that which overlies it. This ball, about six centimetres (two inches) in diameter, attracted attention by its symmetrical shape, and, on being carefully examined, seemed to present evident marks of human workmanship. It seems impossible to arrive at any other conclusion than that it was formed and deposited in the place where it was found previous to the superposition of the fossil bed upon the lignite. This discovery, if substantiated, would carry back the existence of man to an early period in the formation of the great Paris tertiary basin. It is recorded that a flint axe was found forty years ago in the middle of a bed of the same lignite, worked near the village of Liez, canton de la Fère, in the department of the Aisne.

We hear, upon good authority, that Her Majesty's Theatre, notwithstanding all the difficulties to be encountered, will be opened during the present season for the performance of Italian opera. Mr. Mapleson is, we understand, the lessee; and among the names of the artists already engaged we may mention those of Madame Tietjens, Madame Lemaire, and the Signori Giuglini, Belletti, and Graziani. There is even a hope that Madame Lind-Goldschmidt may be induced again to appear on the lyric stage, and thus ensure the success of the spirited *impresario*. The house, we are told, will open immediately after Easter. It gives us much pleasure to hear of this arrangement; inasmuch as one Opera House, during the great Exhibition time, would by no means be sufficient for the gratification of the additional thousands with which London will then be thronged.

The excavations at present in progress at Rome in the Farnese Gardens are very interesting. Between the Academy and the supposed Temple of Apollo, a marble pavement has been discovered, probably of the date of Alexander Severus, and one of those works which introduced and gave a name to the *Opus Alexandrinum*,—that kind of mosaic pavement so common in the Christian Basilicas. The Temple of Apollo, as it is gradually laid open, appears to be one of the most important constructions of the Palace of Augustus, and its dimensions differ little from those of the supposed library discovered by Bianchini in the middle of the last century. The excavations have reached the western wall, along which the destruction appears to have been less complete; it has still in part its yellow marble plinth and its cornice of that beautiful marble to which the name has been given of *Pavonazzetto*, from the various colours, which recall the plumage of the peacock. Everywhere are traces of the ravages of a terrible fire. On the side of the Via Sacra the works are in regular progress. The road and foot-pavement have been discovered in a direction parallel to the Via Santa Bonaventura, which form the true entrance to the Palace of the Cæsars. Here have been found rich architectural remains, capitals, and entire columns of precious marbles. The interest excited by these discoveries is so great that one day in the week is fixed when the public are admitted to visit them.

The following interesting details are extracted from a letter from Cairo, dated February 12:—"The Nile is led into the Desert, to the centre of the Isthmus of Suez. Water is abundant; reservoirs are constructed along the whole line of the canal, at distances of two hundred metres, capable of containing water for the use of fifty thousand men. On the 2nd of February, M. de Lesseps arrived at the works, in a boat; in his address he said, 'We celebrate to-day the introduction of sweet water into the Desert; this is a great event. Seven years ago, I had to make my first exploring survey of the Desert; for this I required a fortnight's preparation, forty camels, twenty to carry water, tents, provisions of all kinds, servants, guides, and all this for four persons. Before arriving at the place where we are now assembled, we had spent fourteen days, and expended ten thousand francs. In January, 1862, I started from Cairo in a boat, hired the previous evening; after a forty hours' voyage I landed a few yards from this spot, having expended only twenty francs.'"

Mr. Lilly has issued three catalogues of extraordinary interest, such as the lovers of book-rarities are wont to devour with eager eyes. The catalogue of books, "choice and valuable," comprises, we see, no less than five copies of the first folio Shakspeare and ten of the second, with some quartos of different plays. We have Bibles of Coverdale, Matthewe, Cranmer, and many other early translations, in absolute profusion. On another page we see a cluster of Robert Greene's works, and such like curiosities of the Elizabethan time, while not far off are specimens of Caxton, Wynkyn de Worde, and Pynson. The *Bibliotheca Historica et Topographica Anglicana* is a marvellous selection of works, ancient and modern, relating to the subjects indicated by the title.

We are sorry to hear that the quarterly *Index to Current Literature*, started some two years since by Messrs. Low and Co., for indexing newspaper and magazine articles, as well as titles of new books, has come to a stand-still. It was a most useful publication, and like that remarkable index volume to *Notes and Queries*, containing some fifty thousand references upon every conceivable subject, could never be consulted without contributing at least some portion of knowledge upon the subject under inquiry. The new weekly journal, *Public Opinion*, we note has just commenced an "Index to the London Press," giving the titles or subjects of all the leading articles in the London daily and weekly journals.

It is with regret that we announce the death of Mr. Francis Talfourd, the gifted dramatist, which took place on Sunday last at Meuton, in the south of France, where he was staying for the benefit of his health. Upon turning to the new edition, recently published, of *Men of the Time*, we find that

the name of Talfourd makes one more to the long list of unaccountable omissions in that otherwise very useful book. A life of Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, which had also been omitted, will be inserted, we understand, in all future copies.

The *Moniteur* has long had the name of being the official organ of the French Government. With respect to its foreign correspondence, however, it denies that this emanates from either the home or any foreign government. During the past day or two it has appended to the communications in question the following note:—"We must again repeat, once for all, that the correspondence of this journal is derived from private sources, and does not possess any official character."

It is stated that Lord Talbot de Malahide has been for some time past collecting materials for a history of the noble house of Talbot, including the various Irish branches, as well as the senior branch, of which the Earl of Shrewsbury is the head. Lord Talbot is hereditary Lord Admiral of Malahide, and the castle and estates of Malahide have been in the possession of his ancestors for nearly seven hundred years in direct male descent. The taste for family histories and descriptive genealogies is rapidly on the increase. These books, as collectors know to their cost, are generally privately printed, and latterly, when they have occurred for sale, the prices realized have been enormous. A few years ago the Americans were active and frequently successful competitors for them at London literary auction-rooms, but now home competition seems likely for the present to prevent the export of any further copies. Amongst the more prominent of those recently sold, we may mention *History of the House of Gournay*, or *Gurney*, £21. 10s., *Memoirs of Cholmley Family*, £5., *Account of the Mansell Family*, £5. 10s., *Scrope and Grosvenor Roll*, £10. 10s. One book, Nicholls's *History of Leicestershire*, which is more a collection of family histories than a description of churches and castles, is counted cheap if secured at any price less than one hundred sovereigns.

Victor Hugo's new work, *Les Misérables*, upon which he has been engaged nearly a quarter of a century, will be published in the course of a few weeks by Messrs. A. Lacroix and Co. of Brussels. From a yellow hand-bill sent out by this house to nearly every bookseller in Europe, we learn that M. Hugo has received £16,000 for the copyright of *Les Misérables*. The work will be published in three parts, each complete in itself, and their titles are to be "Fantine," "Cosette et Marius," and "Jean Valjean." It will probably appear in an English dress before very long.

The book market is dull. Either authors are very lazy just now, or publishers do not see their way clear to speculate in paper and print. Sir Edward Bulwer-Lytton's new novel, *A Strange Story*, has been out nearly a month, and as yet no second edition is announced. If we remember rightly, at least three editions of Wilkie Collins's *Woman in White* were sold in the same time last year, and yet, we suppose, successful as Mr. Collins has been of late, he will scarcely lay claim to a popularity as wide as that of the distinguished Baronet, whose productions, in different sizes, issue simultaneously from three of the largest houses in the trade, one of the firms alone paying £20,000 for the right. Amongst the newest literary promises we note another book by the late Hugh Miller; a volume of *Autobiographical Reminiscences*, by the late Rev. T. Hartwell Horne; *The Gouty Philosopher* (a series of papers from the *London Review*, &c.), by Dr. Charles Mackay; the *History of Frederick II., Emperor of the Romans* in the thirteenth century, by Mr. T. L. Kingston; *Mountaineering* in 1861, an account of the ascent of Weisshorn, a passage of the Old Weisthor, by Professor Tyndal; a book entitled *Gravenhurst, or Thoughts on Good and Evil*, by Mr. W. Smith, author of *Thorndale*; yet another new edition of Shakspeare, this time by Mr. Dyce, in which, it is said, "various difficult readings will be courageously dealt with." *An Account of the Recent Explorations in South Australia*,

It has been stated that, for the privilege of publishing an edition of three thousand copies of Sir Bulwer-Lytton's new romance, *A Strange Story*, the worthy Baronet receives £1500 from Messrs. Low and Co., the enterprising publishers.

The third and fourth volumes of Mr. Campbell's *Popular Tales of the West Highlands* have just been issued. Unlike the first series of this most interesting work, the new volumes are illustrated with quaint woodcuts, descriptive of Northern myths, customs, and West Highland antiquities. The binding, we may remark, is thoroughly appropriate; the gilt stamp on the sides of a curiously wrought early Christian stone cross being taken from the original in the island of Iona.

People are beginning to ask for the correct name of the forthcoming Exhibition at South Kensington. Quite as many journals, they remark, call it the "Great Exhibition" as those which name it the "International Exhibition," and the same publications, the complainants further state, not unfrequently dub the Exposition by both appellations in the course of one short article. The Exhibition of 1851 was known, and probably will be long after the one in progress is forgotten, as the "Great Exhibition," and the Royal Commissioners have styled the forthcoming event as the "International Exhibition;" why, then, is it not generally spoken of by this distinctive title, and the confusion of ideas prevented?

As somewhat relating to the International Exhibition, we notice a curious publication entitled *The Exhibition Hotel Interpreter*, by Dr. Reehorst. The book is in four, six, or ten languages, according to the polyglot taste of the purchaser, and is said to contain "a hundred objects indispensable to hotels, dining-rooms, taverns—a boon to the wayfarer." Even after this assurance, we are still in a fog as to the precise object of the book. However, perhaps the remainder of the title will set the nature of the work in a clear light. "This novel method saves expenses to doubtful foreign waiters, curtails selfish interpreters, prevents dreary impositions, debars obnoxious misunderstandings, and, while rendering the most illiterate an efficient polyglot, it enables the advertisements constantly to appeal to the eye with unabated readiness." We are sorry for it, but we find ourselves even yet in the dark. This much we know, our old acquaintance Mrs. Malaprop would have fallen on her knees before the author, who, it appears, is determined people shall first buy his book before finding out what it is all about.

We learn from a private source that a new work on *Biblical Hebrew and the Figurative Language of the Ancient Jews*, may shortly be expected from the pen of the just now celebrated Parisian professor, M. Ernest Renan. This gentleman is known amongst his friends as a hard worker; indeed, the popular saying concerning him is, that "he lives the life of a hermit," so industriously does he work amongst his books and papers, early and late, in his retreat from the world in the Rue Madame.

We learn also that M. Garnier Pagès has just published the sixth volume of his important work on the Revolution, in which he took such a leading and active part. We are assured that "the interest of the reader is not in any danger of flagging when perusing the history of the Provisional Government any more than in the five preceding volumes. The author gives with unabated vivacity a recital of the great crisis through which France passed in 1848; and reveals to us, with admirable fidelity, the secret springs which governed the actions of the public men of that period." Since M. Garnier Pagès, return from Germany, we are sorry to hear that he has been confined to his house, an invalid.

*Modern Metre*, the new metrical magazine, has been the means of introducing to the literary world a new Irish poet of some promise—Mr. Ed. Irwin, of Dublin. Mr. Irwin's poems, we understand, are about to be issued in a separate volume.

The *Essays and Reviews* have reached a tenth edition. The new issue is in duodecimo form, and half the price of the preceding editions.

Mr. Bentley announces a new novel by the author of *The Heir of Lynne*. It will be entitled *The Channings*.



The caricature in a late number of the *Kladde-radatsch*, or German *Punch*, is capital in its way. It is entitled "A Crown Cabinet-maker," and the picture represents a workshop, in the middle of which the master (Napoleon III.) is busily engaged in polishing a new royal chair (Mexico). Many old broken chairs (Tuscany, Modena, Rome) are scattered here and there. His workman (Victor Emmanuel), pointing to a splendid chair (Italy), thus addresses his master:—"Now, master, I have almost finished the chair; it requires only a bit of Venetian varnish and Roman antique for ornament." "My good fellow," replies the master, "pray don't bother me now. I have just received a pressing order from abroad; and before I have finished the chair you see yonder, I cannot attend to yours."

A new work by Mr. Fairholt is announced as in preparation—*Egypt and the Nile*, the result of this artist's recent journey to the East.

A new story, by the authoress of *East Lynne*, will shortly be commenced in *Once a Week*; to be followed, on its completion, by a novel from the pen of Mr. Tom Taylor.

We hear that Prince Napoleon's two speeches are going to be translated into Italian, under the supervision of the Prince himself, and one hundred thousand copies of this Italian version will be struck off and sent to Turin.

Owing to the extensive advertising which preceded its appearance, sixty thousand copies of *London Society*, the new magazine of "light literature," have been sold by the publishers.

## SCIENCE.

## SOCIAL SCIENCE.

*Transactions of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science.* London: J. W. Parker and Son.

## THIRD NOTICE.

UNDER the head of *Laws relating to Property*, Mr. William Gernon, M.A., has a paper entitled "The Law Charities of Ireland; with a few suggestions likely to secure their more effectual application." Being connected officially with the Board of Charitable Donations and Bequests in Ireland, as one of the secretaries, Mr. Gernon relates that he is compelled with regret to state, that in a multitude of cases the intentions of charitable testators are not only not faithfully carried out, but that they are oftentimes designedly and systematically frustrated. The powers of the present Board are included in the following duties. The Commissioners are authorized to sue for the recovery of every charitable devise and bequest intended to be applied in Ireland, which shall be *withheld*, *concealed*, or *misapplied*; and they are to apply the same, when recovered, to charitable and pious uses, according to the intention of the donor or donors. These are their entire powers; and from the language of the Act it will be perceived that the Board is essentially and exclusively a board for recovery, and not for administration or control.

After explaining several points of detail, the author proceeds to sum up the practical meaning of his labours. First, he thinks the very reading of his communication is of service, as conveying to a portion of the public that is ignorant of the fact, the information that there is in existence a public board, whose special duty it is not only to realize the charities by bequest, but to compel a proper application. Secondly, he holds that it is a matter of importance it should be known, that any person who may know of a charity being concealed or misapplied, and may make representation to the Board, may feel assured of two things—first, that his representations will be attended to, and next, that the informer will never, unless

he wish it, have his name divulged. Thirdly, he suggests, in order to ensure publicity of a bequest, that every executor should be enforced to publish the particulars of every charitable bequest in one or more newspapers circulating in the locality in which it is intended to take effect; that he should forward an extract of the same information to the clergyman of every religious sect, the members of which were to be benefited; that twelve months after administration he furnish to the Board of Charities an account of his proceedings; and that for the neglect of any of the requirements of the will he be subjected to a substantial penalty, to be sued for directly and exclusively by the Board.

In instances where the application of charities has to be deferred by the existence of a life or lives, interposed by a testator (cases very difficult to manage), the author recommends that, in addition to the precautions suggested above, the person enjoying the beneficial life interest should be compelled to report from time to time the nature of the property, and if money the nature of the investment. Means ought also to be adopted by which the death of the person should, as speedily as possible, be reported to the Board of Charities. The paper is apparently a thoughtful one, and the suggestions very just and important.

"The Landed Estates Court" is the subject of a short paper by the Right Hon. James Whiteside. He opens by observing, "that to remove obstructions in the transfer of land has for centuries been an object favoured by the enlightened lawyer, and more strongly advocated by the statesman. He then describes the working of the Encumbered Estates Act, and finally explains the provisions of the new Act now in force, by which any property, or any kind of interest in land, may be sold by the owner or encumbrancer. The provisions of the new Act are briefly stated thus:—1. To sell property wholly unencumbered. 2. To sell settled estates under the 19th and 20th of Vict. c. 20. 3. To give a conveyance with an indefeasible title, in case of sale by private contract. 4. To enforce, in connection with that proceeding, specific performance. 5. To sell all property decreed to be sold in Chancery, or ordered for sale in the Court of Bankruptcy or Insolvency, unless otherwise directed by those Courts. 6. To give the owner of an estate, whether encumbered or unencumbered, a declaration of indefeasible or parliamentary title; determining the leases, tenancies, or encumbrances, to which such estate is subject.

This measure, according to Mr. Whiteside, fixes an epoch in the life of a nation: certainty, cheapness, and confidence are secured, and the purchaser and the seller are equally benefited: the possessor of the land enjoys it and improves it, and disposes of the whole or part with ease and profit. He (Mr. Whiteside) hopes that the English nation will look into this question, examine the principle, discover the prodigious advantage to the State of such a law, and adopt it.

A second article, entitled "The Landed Estates Court," is given by J. A. Lawson, the Solicitor-General for Ireland. Mr. Lawson's object in this paper is to show that there is in operation in Ireland a system which has successfully solved the problem of making the title to landed property safe and easily transferable. Starting on the principle that the title to land should be capable of safe and easy transfer, the author argues that land cannot be sold like a chattel, by manual delivery; nor yet by a suggested plan of registering the title to land in books to be provided

for that purpose, and of transferring the land by a simple entry in these books, with the names of the owners. In Ireland it would be perfectly impossible to establish such systems, or even to set them in action, and there has been set up, consequently, the Landed Estates Court, which has for its simple duties to investigate title, and pronounce judicially upon it; and, having satisfied itself that a good title exists, to give the purchaser an indefeasible title. The business done by this court is obviously very great. From its commencement up to August, 1861, it appears that 1945 petitions were filed; 1213 titles read; 1121 estates sold for £12,324,977; 1045 schedules filed; £12,103,806 paid out. The Solicitor-General impresses very earnestly the application of the same system to England.

Mr. Henry T. Dix has a paper "On the Registry of Deeds in Ireland," which, though important in its way, is not one to which we can give more than a passing notice. First, he proposes an amendment in the form of the memorial; next, the memorial and deed being perfected, he suggests that in the process of registry they should be handed in to two clerks, called examining clerks, who shall compare deed and memorial, see it properly stamped and entered in the register. He further suggests that immediately after the deed is returned to the solicitor the copy memorial should be given to a clerk who should enter it in a day-book, and that the memorial itself should be handed into the names-index office,—in which names, indexes, books and their duplicates are to be kept. Mr. Dix gives several carefully compiled specimen-tables, and concludes with some observations on the searching department of the registry office. He proposes for this department a new officer, to be called the "clerk of searches."

## CORRESPONDENCE.

To the Editor of the Literary Gazette.

Sir,—The discussion raised by Mr. Dunn's work, as to the corpuscles of the blood of animals, is one of very practical interest: as in chloroform accidents, and the syncope following intense hemorrhage. The transfusion of blood is one of our most valued resources: it would be a pity if the idea got abroad amongst your numerous professional readers that the "injection of other blood than human into the veins of a human subject is followed by fatal consequences," as held by Mr. Dunn; the fact being, that the blood of any small vertebrate animal whatever, or the blood of any vertebrate animal, small or big, if defibrinated, may be thus used with benefit.

The discussion is partly right as to the identity between the blood of the human subject and that of the ox and hog; but it is not right as to the blood of dozens of other animals, especially all large animals: all the camel tribe for instance, where the corpuscles are not round but oval, and some kinds of deer, where they are cocked-hat-shape or angular, and are at once recognized from human corpuscles.

It is very curious that domestication alters the character of the blood corpuscles, a rock ahead of Mr. Dunn's excellent psychologies, which he should be cautious not to split on; if it were possible to obtain a drop of the blood of one of Dr. Livingstone's savages, or Mr. Longfellow's typical hero in paint and feathers, Hiawatha, we could say beforehand that it would differ as to its corpuscles and polyhedral crystallizations from that of the blood of any denizen domesticated in London, constantly respiring sewer gases, coal gas, &c. One per cent. of carbonic oxide in the air of a church or theatre, from a badly managed coke-fire, would injure, if not destroy, the blood corpuscles, and even kill some small animals, through injuring their corpuscles, as

readily as prussic acid; it was this gas that killed the poor colliers in the Hartley Colliery accident, and through their blood corpuscles. The "crystallization" in six-sided plates of the rat, or four-sided of the guinea-pig, relied on by Mr. Dunn, must be a very insignificant matter indeed, compared to these characters of the globules or "corpuscles" of the living fluid; but as for identification of species, even the latter should be used with caution. The blood of reptiles or fishes is at once recognized by their gigantic corpuscles; and all large animals, as a rule, have large, all small animals small corpuscles; but further it would not be safe to go.

CHARLES KIDD, M.D.

Sackville Street, W., March 10.

P.S. For the diagnosticating of such animals as the lepidosiren, "a fish and not a fish," one drop of its blood settles the question of its being a reptile. So of the platypus and some others. But for settling the distinction between Hood's poor needlewoman of London and Hiawatha, or the position of the gorilla as to the human species, even Mr. Gulliver, our first authority on the subject, or Milne-Edwards, would admit that it would be absurd.

## SOCIETIES.

### CAMBRIDGE ANTIQUARIAN SOCIETY.

February 24.—Professor Babington, Treasurer, in the chair.

The Rev. John Glover, Librarian of Trinity College, exhibited and described the contents of a portion of an Uncial Manuscript of the New Testament, recently discovered enclosed in the binding of a copy of the works of Gregory of Nazianzum, brought from Mount Athos, and purchased by Trinity College at the desire of Dr. Bentley. It is thought that this manuscript was written in the ninth century. It consists of little more than two pages, but contains some very curious readings. It is proposed to call it Codex IV.

The Rev. W. G. Searle, of Queen's College, communicated a Catalogue of Books which belonged to that College in 1472. It was chiefly remarkable for the total absence of classical works.

March 10.—Dr. Guest, Master of Gonville and Caius College, in the chair.

The Rev. J. E. B. Mayor, of St. John's College, commented upon some *Orations* by R. Croke, who succeeded Erasmus as Greek Reader in this University in 1522, on the advantages of Greek Learning.

Mr. Bradshaw, of King's College, stated that he had discovered the Waldensian Manuscripts that had so long been supposed to be lost, and for the loss of which the University had often been rather roughly handled. Nasmith, not finding them in their proper place, seeing a note that they had been lent many years before his time, and not understanding the Romance language, did not identify them when found on another shelf in the library, and only says of them in his *Catalogue* of the manuscripts "that they seemed to contain treatises on Divinity, in Spanish." It is now found that all of the six books supposed to have been lost are safe in the University library. Three of them have Morland the donor's name written in them, and all have the various marks requisite for their identification. Unfortunately, their contents do not seem to be of nearly so much value as was supposed by the persons who had failed in seeing them. The oldest cannot be earlier than A.D. 1400, and the others are of about or even later than 1500. The poem, entitled "The Noble Lesson," in the Romance language, supposed to have been written in about the year 1100, is now shown to be not earlier than 1400. The intentional erasure of an Arabic numeral caused the mistake.

### INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.

March 4.—John Hawkshaw, Esq., President, in the chair.

"Description of the Loch Ken Viaduct, Portpatrick Railway," by Mr. E. L. J. Blyth, M. Inst. C.E. This viaduct was situated on a curve of half a mile radius, and carried a single line of railway

over the loch at an oblique angle, so that the width of the waterway was increased from 265 feet to 360 feet, the depth of the water at the point of crossing being 29 feet in summer. It consisted of seven openings,—three of 130 feet each in the centre, spanned by wrought-iron girders of the bow and string form; two semicircular arches of masonry, of 20 feet span, in the abutments; and two openings of 20 feet each at the ends, provided with flat cast-iron girders. Owing to there being scarcely any current, it was not deemed necessary to set the piers in the line of the loch, but they were placed at right angles to the viaduct, and each pair of girders was at a slight angle to the adjacent ones.

The bow-and-string girders were each 136 feet 8 inches in length, and were segmental in form, the rise being 17 feet 6 inches, so that the segment was almost identical with a catenary curve, or the true curve of equal pressure. The sections of the upper and the under booms were identical. They consisted of a main plate, 24 inches broad and  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an inch thick, and of two channel irons, each 8 inches by 4 inches in section, and  $\frac{1}{2}$  an inch thick, placed at a distance of 8 inches apart, between and to which the struts and ties, of the same section of channel iron were riveted.

The author considered that the bow-and-string girder possessed advantages over the Warren, or other lattice girders, with parallel top and bottom members; as in the latter class, it was not possible to make the top and bottom members theoretically correct, without great labour and waste of material, and as, owing to the great variation in the strains on the diagonals, it was necessary that they should be of varying dimensions, involving in some cases even different sections of iron.

The girders were built in position on staging, and the greatest amount of deflection of any one girder from its own weight was  $\frac{3}{16}$ ths of an inch. Subsequently, when a locomotive engine weighing thirty-four tons was placed in the centre of each span, and afterwards was run over, first at ten miles an hour, and then at twenty-five miles an hour, the deflection amounted to from  $\frac{1}{8}$  to  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch in each girder, there being no perceptible difference in either case. Finally, when four engines were coupled together, so as to give a load equal to one ton per lineal foot, the deflection only amounted to from  $\frac{1}{4}$  to  $\frac{3}{16}$ ths of an inch.

It was stated that the total cost of this viaduct had amounted to about £13,000.

"Description of the Centre Pier of the Bridge across the River Tamar, at Saltash, on the Cornwall Railway, and of the means employed for its construction," by Mr. R. P. Brereton, M. Inst. C.E. This communication embraced, in a narrative form, a detailed account of the preliminaries connected with the Albert Bridge, which crossed the river Tamar where it was only 1100 feet wide, with precipitous banks, and a depth of water to the surface of the mud of 70 feet. A dyke of green-stone trap intersected the clay-slate formation at this point, and cropped out to the surface above the water on the western bank of the river. It was ascertained, by borings made in the bed of the river, that rock extended from the eastern side to beyond the middle of the stream, covered with mud or silt to a depth of from 3 feet to 16 feet. Subsequently, a thorough examination of the bed of the river where a centre pier would probably be built, by means of a hundred and seventy-five borings made within a cylinder at thirty-five different places, over an area of 50 feet square, enabled an exact model of the surface of the rock to be prepared, showing the irregularities and fissures that might be expected. Eventually it was decided, from the information thus obtained, to erect one pier only in the deep water, instead of three, as would have been necessary for the spans required by the Admiralty; and when it was determined to proceed with the construction of the bridge, in 1852, it was decided that there should be two spans of 455 feet, two of 93 feet, two of 83 feet 6 inches, two of 78 feet, two of 72 feet 6 inches, and nine of 69 feet 6 inches; the total length, including the adjoining land openings, being 2200 feet.

The centre, or deep-water pier, intended to carry the weight of one-half of each of the two main spans, consisted of a column, or circular pillar, of

solid masonry, 35 feet diameter and 96 feet high, carried up from the rock foundation to above high-water mark. Upon this were placed four octagonal columns of cast-iron, 10 feet diameter, carried up to the level of the roadway, which was 100 feet above high-water mark. Upon the tops of the columns, cast-iron standards were fixed, to receive the ends of the tubes and chains which constituted the trusses of the bridge. The weight at the bottom of the masonry foundation was about nine and a half tons per square foot, increased, when the bridge was loaded by passing trains, to about ten tons per square foot.

At the monthly ballot, the following candidates were balloted for and duly elected:—Sir John Benson, Messrs. J. F. Blair, D. Hutton, E. Johnston, I. Kershaw, T. E. M. Marsh, R. Milligan, R. Smallman, and W. G. Smart, as Members; Messrs. H. H. Bigg, J. Gordon, J. M. Harkness, R. Hodson, J. Oliver, and I. Pickering, as Associates.

### SOCIETY OF ARTS.

March 5.—Thomas Bazley, Esq., M.P., in the chair.

The paper read was "On the Progress of British Commerce during the last Ten Years," by Mr. Thomas Ellison. The author said that one of the most obvious uses of the forthcoming International Exhibition will be the data it will supply to all inquiring minds for instituting a comparison between the present state of the arts, manufactures, and commerce, with their condition as represented in the maiden Exhibition of 1851; and there would be much curiosity felt as to how we, as an industrial nation, shall acquit ourselves before the host of competitors whose products will be placed in juxtaposition to our own, what will be the comparative progress in respect of time, and the relative progress with regard to the advancement shown by other countries. It was satisfactory to be able to state, however, that whatever may be the extent and character of our progress, as to the quality of our artistic and manufactured products, in no previous decade in the commercial history of Great Britain has our trade shown a proportionate increase anything like equal to the augmentation between 1850 and 1860. Our commerce with Europe has advanced from £25,252,000 to £46,868,000, or 33 per cent.; that with Asia, from £11,874,000 to £29,687,000, or 150 per cent.; that with Africa, from £3,626,000 to £6,875,000, or 159 per cent.; that with America, from £28,974,000 to £42,671,000, or 47 per cent.; that with Australia, from £2,620,000 to £9,741,000, or 271 per cent.; that with all foreign countries, from £51,939,000 to £92,170,000, or 77 per cent.; that with British Colonies and Possessions, from £19,428,000 to £43,672,000, or 124 per cent.; and that with the world, from £71,367,000 to £135,842,000, or 90 per cent. Our exports of cotton manufactures and yarns have increased from £28,257,000 to £51,959,000, or nearly 54 per cent.; of silk manufactures from £1,256,000 to £2,413,000, or over 92 per cent. The total shipments of all kinds of textile manufactures advanced from £40,702,000 in 1853, to £83,139,600 in 1860, an advancement of almost 75 per cent. With regard to imports, those of cotton-wool rose from £21,531,000 to £44,615,000, more than twofold. The increase from the United States was 126 per cent.; from India 71 per cent.; and that from other countries 11 per cent. The small proportionate increase from India and other countries demonstrates the superior favour in which the produce of the Southern States is held by our spinners; and the author is of opinion, that at the close of the present unfortunate war, the same supremacy will be retained by the American fibre. The total imports of all kinds of textile raw materials show an increase of nearly 90 per cent. The real value of our entire imports in 1860 was £210,531,000.

Many other facts of equal interest and importance were stated in the course of Mr. Ellison's paper, which was illustrated by several tables showing in considerable detail the statistics of our exports and imports during the last ten years.



GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

March 5.—Professor A. C. Ramsay, President, in the chair.

George Ford Copeland, Esq., M.R.C.S., 5, Bay's Hill Villas, Cheltenham; William James Dunsford, Esq., 14, Tavton Street, Gordon Square; Charles Henry Gatty, Esq., F.L.S., Felbridge Park, East Grinstead, Sussex; and A. H. Green, Esq., M.A., Fellow of Caius College, Cambridge, were elected Fellows.

Sir P. G. Egerton, Vice-President, having taken the chair, the following communication was read:—"On the Glacial Origin of certain Lakes in Switzerland, Scotland, Sweden, and North America," by A. C. Ramsay, F.R.S., President of the Geological Society. The author first stated, that in this memoir he proposed to extend his theory of the glacial origin of the smaller mountain-lakes of Wales and Switzerland (published in *The Old Glaciers of North Wales*) to those greater lakes of Switzerland, which, like the tarns above alluded to, lie in true rock-basins. He then explained a map, compiled from those of Charpentier, Morlot, and Mortillet, showing the ancient extension of the great Alpine glaciers across the Lowlands of Switzerland to the Jura, also over the area that surrounds the Lake of Constance, and on the south into the plains of Piedmont and Lombardy. All the great lakes of Switzerland, and the lakes of Como, Lugano, and Maggiore, lie directly in the course of one or other of these great glaciers; and, as shown by the soundings, and the levels of the rocks at their mouths, or in the river-beds below, each of these lakes, like the smaller tarns of the Todten See and the lake at the Grimsel, was shown to lie in a true rock-basin. He then considered the question of the denudation of the Alpine and Miocene areas of Switzerland, and show that none of the lakes lie in *aboriginal undened synclinal hollows*. Next, that they do not lie in areas of mere watery erosion. Neither running water nor the still water of lakes can scoop large hollow basins, like those of the lakes, bounded on all sides by rocks. Running water may fill them up, but cannot excavate them. He next contended that they do not lie in lines of gaping fracture. A glance shows this, with respect to such lakes as those of Geneva, Neuchâtel, and Constance; and, reasoning on the nature of the contortion of the strata of the Alps, he contended that, though fractures of the rocks must be common, they need not be gaping fractures. To produce such a mountain-chain, the strata are not *upheaved and stretched* so as to produce open cracks; on the contrary, they are *compressed laterally and crumpled up* into smaller space, and the uppermost strata, that pressed heavily on the crumpled rocks now visible, would prevent the formation of wide open fractures below, these upper strata, as in North Wales, having, over a great part of the area, been mostly or altogether removed by denudation. Next, lakes of the rock-basin kind do not lie each in an area of special subsidence. If so, for instance, we should require one for the Todten See, one for the Grimsel, one for the ancient lake of the Kircheth, several at the foot of the Siedelhorn, many hundreds close together in Sutherlandshire, and thousands in North America.

If then the lake-basins were formed by none of the above-named causes, the only other agent that has affected the country on a great scale is glacier ice. All the lakes lie directly in the courses of the ancient glaciers. The basin of the Lake of Geneva is 950 French feet deep near its eastern end, and was scooped out by the great glacier of the Rhone, the ice of which, from data supplied by Charpentier, was, as it issued from the valley, 3550 feet thick to the bottom of the lake. This great weight of ice ground out the hollow of the lake, which gradually shallows towards Geneva, where the glacier thinned and the grinding power was lessened. Where the same glacier abutted on the Jura, the ice-current was arrested, and it flowed to the N.E. and S.W.; and where the ice was thickest and heaviest above the Lake of Neuchâtel, it ground out the hollow in which the lake lies.

The lakes of Thun and Brienz lie in the course of the great Aar glacier, those of Zug and the Four Cantons in that of the Aar, the Lake of Zurich lies in that of the Linth, the Lake of Constance in the

course of the prodigious glacier of the Rhine valleys, the numerous little rock-basin lakes near Ivrea in the line of the glacier of the Val d'Aosta, and those of Maggiore, Lugano, and Como in the courses of the two gigantic glacier-areas that drained the mountains between Monte Rosa and the Sondrio.

The sizes of the lakes and their depths were then shown to be, in several cases, proportional to the magnitude of the glaciers that ground out the basins in which they lie, and the circumstances as to whether the pressure of ice was broadly diffused, or vertical as in narrow valleys.

Finally, it was shown that rock-basins holding lakes are always exceedingly numerous in and characteristic of all countries that have been extensively glaciated. Lakes are comparatively few in the southern half of North America, but immediately south and north of the great lakes and the St. Lawrence, the whole country is *moutonnée* and striated, and is also covered with a prodigious number of rock-basins holding water. The same is the case in the North of Scotland, the whole area of which has been *moulded by ice*; and east of the Scandinavian chain, in another intensely glaciated region, the country is covered by innumerable lakes.

CHEMICAL.

March 6.—Dr. Hofmann, President, in the chair. Messrs. T. A. Pooley, T. M. Evans, F. C. Matthews, and J. D. Perrens, were elected Fellows.

Mr. James Croll read a paper, "On Specific Heat in Relation to Chemical Combination." Mr. Greenville Williams read a paper, "On the Indifferent Hydrocarbons found in Boghead Tar." Since publishing his former results, he had succeeded in isolating an additional constituent, namely, the hydride of amyl. The compounds which he had formerly regarded as radicals, he now looked upon as homologues of marsh gas.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE.

March 7.—Octavius Morgan, Esq., M.P., Vice-President, in the chair.

In opening the proceedings, the Chairman observed, that since their last meeting a very valuable addition had been made to archæological literature, in which the members of the Institute could not fail to take a special interest, as the production of one who for so many years had taken so active a part in their meetings. He alluded to the important work by Mr. Charles Newton, on the *Antiquities of Halicarnassus and the Tomb of Mausolus*, just published. A few members of the Institute had been desirous to present a copy to the library of the Society, and Mr. Morgan wished, on their behalf, to lay on the table this beautiful record of the researches made by their old friend, whose efficient assistance as their Honorary Secretary in former years could not be forgotten. Mr. Morgan called attention also to a cast, now exhibited, of the bust of a statue of Ceres, a production of a high class of ancient art, which had been discovered by Mr. Newton on the site of the Temple of that goddess at Cnidus. Professor Donaldson made some remarks on the valuable services rendered to archæology by their talented friend, now Keeper of Antiquities at the British Museum, and cordially proposed thanks to the donors of so remarkable an accession to the memorials of ancient art.

Dr. Macgowan, who has resided for many years in China, and through his intimate knowledge of the language and usages of the Chinese, had enjoyed unusual advantages in exploring localities rarely if ever visited by Europeans, then gave an account of a remarkable ancient inscribed slab of basalt, described as the memorial of Yu, the founder of one of the early dynasties in China, about B.C. 2205. A copy or drawing of this inscription by some native artist had been obtained by the French, and it was published in Paris in 1802 by a German Orientalist, Joseph Hager, with an interpretation. Some doubts had, however, been entertained in regard to the authenticity of the memorial, of which the transcript had reached France, probably through Japan; but the accuracy of Hager's representation is proved by the actual impression or rubbing of the slab, which Dr. Mac-

gowan exhibited, and now for the first time brought to this country. The stone is, however, only an ancient copy of the original memorial, which had been engraved on certain rocks in a remote district of China, and was accidentally brought to light by a land-slip, which revealed the inscribed surface. It is in very archaic characters, now quite obsolete; an interpretation in the ordinary letters had been long since inscribed on the slab by some great Chinese scholar, and also a statement of the circumstances which caused the discovery. The explanation which had been first published by the learned Jesuit, Père Amiot, sets forth, as Dr. Macgowan proceeded to state, that Yu had attained to great eminence through his skill as an engineer, having been commissioned by the Emperor to check the devastation occasioned by a fearful deluge, which, during nine years, covered the face of the country. Yu, called *Ta-Yu* the Great, skilfully remedied the evil, of which the ancient slab in question describes the ravages, and the success of his arduous efforts. Yu was ultimately elevated to the Empire; Dr. Macgowan had succeeded in ascertaining that his tomb still exists, and is in the keeping of his descendants of the hundred and eighty-third generation, by whom annual offerings are made to his memory in their ancestral temple. The family, he observed, had been recognized by all successive dynasties as deriving their origin from *Ta-Yu*, but the existence of his tomb was not hitherto known. The great antiquity attributed by the Chinese to the inscription which he had submitted to the Institute, might doubtless be questioned; it was only a copy, although an ancient one, of the incised rock to which no European had had access; it is moreover in some degree less interesting to the European antiquary than the famous and authentic memorial of the mission of the Nestorian Christians in China in the seventh century. In reply to some inquiries by Professor Westmacott, Dr. Macgowan stated that there are good grounds to believe that the interlinear interpretations and commentary on the copy of the stone of Yu, of which the facsimile was shown, were inscribed not later than A.D. 800. It had not been in his power to verify the accuracy of this slab by actual comparison with the supposed original, in a remote part of the Celestial Empire, but its antiquity is beyond question, and it is regarded by Chinese scholars as a monument of important character.

Mr. M. Shurlock then gave an account of the recent discoveries on the site of Chertsey Abbey, and of the successive excavations by which the plan of the conventual church, the chapter-house, and the chapel of the infirmary, had been distinctly traced. The first researches were made about 1850: these were communicated to the Institute by Professor Westwood. In 1855 considerable excavations were made, and remains of very beautiful pavements of finely-designed decorative tiles were found, with many architectural fragments and other relics of interest, described in the Transactions of the Surrey Archæological Society. The pavements, which appear to have surpassed in artistic beauty and variety all other decorations of their class in England, have been accurately published by Mr. H. Shaw. Mr. Shurlock exhibited a large series, both of the tiles and of drawings of the more elaborate designs, amongst which occur numerous subjects of romance, the name of *Tristram* occurring repeatedly in the inscriptions; also representations of the signs of the Zodiac, the occupations of the seasons, with very curious illustrations of armour and costume in the twelfth century, designed with unusual spirit and artistic freedom. Mr. Shurlock exhibited likewise numerous drawings by Mr. Angell, who resides next the site of the monastery, and who courteously invited the members of the Institute to visit these interesting remains on any occasion, with the kind promise to act as their *cicerone*.

Dr. Wilkins, of Newport, related the discoveries of Roman remains which have occurred near that town, in the course of recent railway operations. Few, if any, Roman vestiges of note had occurred in the Isle of Wight, with the exception of the villa and mosaic floors brought to light near Carisbrooke in 1859, and illustrated in Dr. Wilkins's exposition of the geology and antiquities of the Island. The remains lately found are on rising

ground near the Medina, where cinerary urns were found in considerable numbers, the spot having apparently been the site of an extensive Roman cemetery, as indicated by traces of cremation and sepulchral remains. A large number of broken amphore were also brought to light. These may have served, as has been noticed in some other places, as depositories for the ashes of the dead. The urns found were of the usual Roman wares, with some specimens of Samian, and oyster-shells in abundance, relics of metal, &c., indicating some extensive occupation in Roman times.

Mr. Arthur Trollope gave an account of a remarkable shaft at Lincoln, apparently of Roman construction, and leading down to diverging galleries, giving access to extensive catacombs, now blocked up, of which the existence has been ascertained beneath the high ground to the north of the ancient *Lindum*. It has been conjectured that these subterranean cavities were formed in obtaining building materials in preference to forming open quarries. Roman objects occur frequently amongst the débris.

Mr. S. P. Freeman exhibited several beautiful gold medallions, obtained near Athens. They represent bacchanalian subjects, and although of late Greek workmanship, are of beautiful design, in low relief, highly finished.

Professor Donaldson brought two funeral urns, from the catacombs lately brought to light in forming a railway near Alexandria, and showed a plan and diagram of the chambers and columbaria, which he had received with the urns from Mr. H. J. Rouse, the engineer engaged upon the work. One of the urns is of black ware, with ornaments painted in white, and modelled in relief; the other is still closed with cement, and the incinerated contents have not been disturbed.

Some fine Spanish and German weapons, with a specimen of the work of the Milanese armourers in the sixteenth century, also a portion of a steel war-saddle, with the royal arms of Portugal, were exhibited by Mr. R. T. Pritchett. Several good examples of arms and armour, a plug bayonet, spanners, and other objects connected with the early use of fire-arms, were brought by Mr. Bernhard Smith; and several daggers, spear-heads, &c., of earlier date, found in the bed of the Thames, by Mr. W. Burges.

Mr. W. W. Wynne, M.P., exhibited several early documents with seals, relating to Wales; a beautiful ivory folding tablet, with sacred subjects, from Valle Crucis Abbey; and a set of the curious counters with royal portraits, engraved probably by Crispin de Pass, or one of his contemporaries. Mr. H. Bohn contributed a silver chasing, representing Mary, Queen of Scots, and bearing date 1580; at that period she was imprisoned at Sheffield, and it is known that some artist was permitted to paint her portrait from the life. The costume and accessory ornaments bear resemblance to those of the portrait in the Duke of Devonshire's possession. A unique hammer-head of very hard white stone, found in Flintshire, was sent for examination by the Rev. E. L. Barnwell, with surface grooved in a very remarkable reticulated pattern, of which no other example is known.

#### ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

March 8.—General Meeting: Lord Strangford, President, in the chair.

The Rev. John Mills, William Macpherson, Esq., A. Bellasis, Esq., Lieut.-Colonel Rigby, Sir Frederick Halliday, K.C.B., Major-General Sir A. S. Waugh, Colonel Baker, Sir A. Montgomery, Bart., were elected Resident; and Major R. N. Tronson, Captain H. G. Raverty, Colonel E. St. John Neale, Non-Resident Members of the Society.

A paper was read by the Secretary, written by Charles Bruce, Esq., "On the Vedic Conception of the Earth," as portrayed in a hymn addressed to the Earth, translated from the *Atharva Veda* (xii. 1). This hymn is first analysed by Mr. Bruce, and shown to have been most probably made up from fragments of several bardic compositions more ancient still than this Veda. He then proceeds to compare the sentiments therein expressed with the parallel ideas to be gathered from some of the minor Homeric poems, and deducible from a

line of Hesiod (*Works and Days*, 108), the sense of which is more fully expressed by Pindar (*Nemean vi. i.*), and enlarged upon by Plato in a passage in *Menexenus*. The paper is a very valuable contribution to the comparative mythology of the Aryan

#### ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

March 10.—Lord Ashburton, President, in the chair.

Lieutenant James Murray Grant, H. B. H. Birchill, Frederick Elliot Blackstone, John F. Laurie, William Leslie, M.P., John Thomas Quin, James Rae, Joseph Rigby, Russell Morland Skinner, Henry Arthur Dillon Surridge, and William Wells, Esqrs., were elected Fellows.

Before proceeding to the reading of the papers, the President stated that letters had been received from Consul Petherick, at Khartum, dated November 25th, announcing his safe arrival, with his wife, medical attendant, and a photographer, after a tedious journey up the Nile, at that place, about the middle of October. He had been detained from pushing forward by serious illness, from which he was fast recovering; but he had lost no time in carrying out the object of his expedition, which is to effect a meeting with Captains Speke and Grant, if possible, in the neighbourhood of Gondokoro or Lake Nyanzo, and to give them a helping hand in traversing the country. He had accordingly sent forward two parties of armed men, with provisions, medicine, and clothing, with instructions to place themselves at Captain Speke's disposal, should they fall in with him before he himself overtook them; and at the date of his last letter he had dispatched a third body of armed men, and was then organizing a fourth, to be followed immediately by a fifth party, forming in the whole a body of about a hundred and sixty armed men, to proceed with into the interior for the protection of the exploring party.

Dr. Shaw then read two letters, which had been translated by the foreign secretary, Dr. Hodgkin, and which gave a very interesting account of M. Mouhot's travels in Cambodia. M. Mouhot had passed through Cambodia from east to west and south to north, up the Me-kong, near to the frontier of Laos, and visited the savage and independent tribes which live between these two countries and Cochin-China. Then, having crossed the Lake of Touli-Sap, and explored the provinces of Ougeor and Battambang, where there are some splendid ruins and a monument—the Temple of Ougeor the Great,—he next passed from the basin of the Mekong into that of Menam, and, setting out from Battambang, crossed to the west as far as Bangkok. The paper then referred to the products of the country, which consist of cotton, fish, iron, gold, and copper. M. Mouhot concludes by stating that he intends starting on another tour to the north-east of Bangkok, in the basin of the Me-kong, towards the frontier of China.

Mr. Crawford, who visited a portion of the country some forty years ago, stated that Cambodia was a corruption of Gomboge. It was one of five or six nations lying between India and China, of second or third-rate civilization, never equalling physically, morally, or intellectually, the Chinese or the Hindus. It was at present a poor state, having been encroached upon by the Siamese on the north, and the Annamites and other people on the south. The wild tribes whom M. Mouhot supposed to have descended from Thibet, were, in his opinion, the inhabitants of the mountain districts, who had escaped from the bondage of the people of the plains. With reference to the designs of the French to achieve the conquest of the country, Mr. Crawford expressed his belief that they would have to encounter the most formidable obstacles, owing to the heat of the climate, the wooded surface of the country, so productive of malaria in tropical climates; that they would, in fact, find it another Algeria, fifteen thousand miles distant. The capital was seven hundred miles from Saigon, and even if the French succeeded in reaching it, they would find there one of the largest and most regular fortifications in the East, constructed by a French engineer. Some of the drawings represented evidently Buddhist temples, and they reminded him, though inferior in quality and beauty, of similar monuments which he had seen in Java.

Dr. Hodgkin said, in addition to the drawings and charts, M. Mouhot had sent some elaborate descriptions of the ruins which he had found at Ougeor. These descriptive papers were full of the most interesting information as to the structure and workmanship of the ruins in question, many of which were constructed of large stones elaborately carved and covered with designs of imaginary animals, as well as of beasts of burden. These temples were found in a district completely embedded in the forest, and in such a state of ruin that trees were found growing upon the roofs. The inscriptions, from their antiquity, were not intelligible to the natives, yet they so nearly resembled the Siamese character that he had no doubt they would soon be deciphered by skilful archaeologists.

The alphabet of the Cambodians is said to be evidently of a phonetic character.

The President, in closing the discussion upon this paper, remarked upon the compliment which M. Mouhot had paid them by sending his communication to the Royal Geographical Society of England.

Mr. Galton then read the second paper, by Mr. Edward O'Riley, "On his Travels to Karen-ni, through the Shan States to Tunga."

Mr. Spenser St. John, F.R.G.S., late Consul-General for Borneo, then read short extracts from his paper, "On the North-West Coast of Borneo." Mr. St. John principally confined himself to a description of the great mountain of Kina Balu, and the people residing at its base. He accepted Sir Edward Belcher's calculation of the height of the mountain, viz. 13,698 feet, as the most correct.

Mr. Crawford drew a contrast between the populations of Borneo and Java, attributing the striking difference which was observable to the geological formation of the respective countries. Borneo, which was of primary formation, was occupied by about a hundred different tribes, all of them fierce and savage; and, though the island was eight or nine times the size of Ireland, the population did not exceed one or two millions. Java, on the contrary, which was of volcanic formation, contained a population of twelve millions in a far more advanced state of material comfort and civilization. Borneo promised to be a country productive in minerals.

#### ZOOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

March 11.—Dr. J. E. Gray, V.P., in the chair.

Mr. W. H. Flower read a paper "On the Brain of the Javan Lorin" (*Stenops javanicus*), as exhibited in a specimen of this animal that had recently died in the Society's Menagerie. Mr. Flower pointed out the peculiarities exhibited in its cerebral structure by this Lemur, which, in common with the other members of the Lemurine group, he considered, in opposition to the opinion of Gratiolet, exhibited unmistakable characters of alliance with the higher quadrumana, and then proceeded to remark at length upon the variations in the form and convolutions of the brain presented by various quadrumana which he had recently examined in a fresh state.

A paper was read by Mr. Lovell Reeve "On a new form of *Physa* of the section *Ameria*," which had lately been transmitted by G. F. Angas, Esq. (corresponding member of the Society), from South Australia, and which was proposed to be called *Physa Alicia*.

Mr. Leadbeater exhibited a grey hen in nearly complete male plumage. The ovaries of this specimen had been ascertained by dissection to be much diseased.

Mr. Tegetmeier exhibited a young male gamecock in full plumage, produced by a male bird in hen's plumage. Out of twenty males, the offspring of the latter bird during the past season, half had assumed the ordinary cock's plumage, and the other half the usual dress of the hen bird. This variation, however, had produced no effect upon their procreative power.

Dr. Halford exhibited a preparation of the cloaca of a common fowl, terminating in two perfect ani.

#### SOCIETY OF ARTS.

March 12.—J. Griffith Frith, Esq., in the chair.

The paper read was "Mauritius, its Commercial and Social Bearings," by Mr. James Morris.

The author began by giving a sketch of the early



history of this colony, pointing out what appeared to be some inaccuracies in the ordinarily received accounts of its discovery. There was no doubt, however, that it was discovered by the Portuguese early in the sixteenth century, though there was some uncertainty as to the exact date. The Dutch held it from 1598 to 1712, and it was taken possession of by the French in 1715, when it resumed the name of L'Île de France. It was surrendered to the English in 1810, from which date to 1849 it was administered by military governors, but since that time civilians have been appointed, and from this change a great degree of prosperity had resulted. The author proceeded to give an account of the climate and natural history of the island, pointing out all its principal vegetable productions, particularly the various useful kinds of timber and fibre-producing plants that flourished there. The variations in the barometer and thermometer were usually remarkably small, though the island was subject to occasional hurricanes of great violence. Its social and intellectual state was favourably described; education appears to receive much attention, and the colonial press is creditably conducted.

The subject of Coolie immigration was discussed at some length. The author is of opinion that Mauritius has fairly solved the problem of Coolie immigration, and it has solved it in a manner to show what a vast benefit it has proved to that race, whilst at the same time it has been of incalculable advantage to the Colony itself, and that any one who will read the various reports on the question with an unprejudiced mind, will come to the inevitable conclusion that the Coolie labourer in Mauritius is better paid, better cared for, and better off at the end of his period of service, than the common farm-labourer in England. Having given the statistics of population, mortality, crime, &c., which appeared to be favourable, Mr. Morris passed on to speak of the state of the commerce and revenue. The sugar-planters appear to have materially improved the cultivation and preparation of this important article, and in the author's opinion there was but one thing wanting to make their commercial success complete, the removal of the differential duties.

A discussion ensued, in which the Chairman, Sir Edward Belcher, Mr. P. L. Simmonds, and others, took part.

# LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

MONDAY.—Royal United Service Institution, 8½.—Meeting. Royal Institute of British Architects, 3.

TUESDAY.—Royal Institution, 3.—On the Physiology of the Senses, by John Marshall, Esq. Institution of Civil Engineers, 8.—Discussion upon Mr. Hartley's paper on the Lower Danube; and, if time permits, Description of Works at the ports of Swansea, Silloth, and Blyth, by Mr. J. Abernethy, M. Inst. C.E.

London and Middlesex, and Surrey Archaeological Societies, 8, at 7, Mildred's Court.—Notice of the Life of St. Winifred, by Bassett Smith, Esq.—Observations on the Porch of the Temple Church, by Charles Bally, Esq.

Statistical Society, 8.—Observations on the Statistics of Illegitimacy, by W. G. Lumley, Esq.—Prison Statistics and Discipline in Lower Bengal, by Dr. Mouatt.

Ethnological Society, 8.—On the Ancient Indian Tombs of Chiriqui, in Veragua, on the Isthmus of Darien, by W. Bollaert, Esq., F.R.G.S.—Note on the Stone Celts from Chiriqui, by C. Carter Blake, Esq.

WEDNESDAY.—Royal Horticultural Society, 12.—Fruit and Floral Committee. 1.—Exhibition of Early Spring Flowers.

Geological Society, 8.—On the Permian Beds of Westmoreland, Cumberland, and Dumfriesshire, by Professor R. Harkness, F.R.S., F.G.S.—On the Data of the last Elevation of Central Scotland, by A. Geikie, Esq., F.G.S.

Society of Arts, 8.—On Sewerage of Towns, by Mr. Robert Rawlinson, C.E.

THURSDAY.—Royal Institution, 3.—On Heat, by Professor Tyndall.

Numismatic Society, 7. Chemical Society, 8.—On the Isolation of Phenyl, by Mr. A. H. Church.

Linnean Society, 8.—On some Skulls from Ceylon, by George Busk, Esq., F.R.S., Sec. L.S.

FRIDAY.—Royal Horticultural Society, 2.—General Meeting. Royal United Service Institution, 3.

Royal Institution, 8.—On some of the Causes, Effects, and Military Applications of Explosions, by F. A. Abel, Esq.

SATURDAY.—Royal Institution, 3.—On National Music, by Henry F. Chorley, Esq. Royal Asiatic Society, 3.

## FINE ARTS.

### ART IN EDINBURGH.

#### SECOND NOTICE.

One of the most remarkable pictures in this year's Academy is *Idle Hours* (642), by T. Graham, a young artist; it is his first exhibited picture. The subject is simple, the figure of a girl lying gorgeously indolent on a cushion, that fairly glimmers with the rich drapery surrounding; the textures to a certain point are nearly equal to Phillip's in strength, and catch the delicacy of those by Lewis; the Indian scarf carelessly lying at the feet of this young houri is very rich in colour, and yet very subdued. The indolence of the figure, the splendour of the draperies, and the luxuriance of the whole canvas, blind us at first to one fault, namely, to the indifferent painting of the flesh; and Mr. Graham must remember that one hand's breadth of life is worth all the luxurious trappings of the East. His *Market Woman of Brittany* (336) is very fine, but quieter in tone. The fruit is quite a *pièce de résistance*, and shows great power of handling as well as colour.

We have three animal painters exhibiting, all severally good in their various styles; there is Sidney Cooper, with his usual care and pleasing softness sending some wonderful sheep (532), the fleeces woolly and yielding, the variety of attitude and expression to the life, the harmony of the picture unexceptionable. A little more breadth and a little more strength would do Sidney Cooper as much good as his peculiar merits would add great value to Gourlay Steel's rough mountain-bulls, which, taken individually, are as fine as Rosa Bonheur's, but fall short of her animated groups. Gourlay Steel has been obliged to cramp his hand with orders for great feeders of fat oxen last year, and we see the result of it in the Academy—the individuals whose portraits he has painted are good specimens of their breeds, but do not allow of sufficient artistic power to rank very high amongst the other pictures. The dogs in the south room are very spirited and would etch well, but they are rather pale in colour, and the China-white has been used with more freedom than judgment, but yet they show that, with all their slightness and shortcomings, Gourlay Steel has power in him that time and patience will develop; the fire is there, it must not fail for want of fuel.

Again, taking a middle course between the over-refinement of Sidney Cooper and the bold hurry of Gourlay Steel, we see M. Troyon, of Paris, giving us his ideas of what cattle should really be (288); and, to tell the truth, his ideas are excellent. The animals are slow and heavy in their gait, as cattle should be; the roughness and the crispness of their hides well given, and they follow each other quite in cattle fashion; the lights are well thrown, and the colour good; but the landscape is a thought hazy.

Archer's *Playing at a Queen* (149) keeps up the credit Edinburgh artists have for colour. There is a richness about the draperies that is almost overpowering; the long shawl that trails like a peacock's feather down her majesty's back is brilliant to a degree, and the finish wonderful, yet so artistic, that it does not spoil the breadth or harmony for which it is so conspicuous.

There are two huge landscapes, which, from their very size, would force attention, and from their very effect, would ensure a certain amount of vulgar praise; but of real sterling merit they have little, and the praise we can give is, that the play of the brush has been rapid, and covered a great deal of canvas in a very short time. We refer to Mr. Bough's *High Street, Edinburgh* (248), and his *Draw between North Berwick and the Bass*. Of the pair we prefer the more unpretentious High Street, which, though spotted and careless in the foreground figures, yet carries the eye well away to the lengthening distance of the street, the atmospheric effect being cleverly managed in parts; but yet, after all, there is too much of scenic effect and not enough of a picture, too much claptrap and not enough painting. So it is in the *Draw between North Berwick and the Bass*: a great staring sky, with multitudinous clouds dabbed on like so many postage-stamps; a gigantic fisherman close to us is

tugging away for dear life at a net, suggesting a miraculous draught of fishes, and this fisherman repeated many times over in various parts of the scene; the Bass looking rather dull and sulky, and far too near the shore for good perspective—for we know the spot well—and a great splashing of flake-white irregularly about, to make things glitter. We know that Mr. Bough has painted better pictures than the one before us, and we know that he has lugged in this same sky to do duty for many landscapes. We feel that he is rapid, from the very touches, and we hear that he boasts of painting against time, to which we strongly object, for though this may be picture-making, yet it is not Art.

Let us pass on with more satisfaction to Mr. Pettie's pictures, for they show originality, faithfulness and power, a triad of merits rare in such a young artist as Mr. Pettie. *The Lieutenant and his Son* and *One of Cromwell's Divines* are both very striking pictures, and both very opposite in feeling and treatment. The former is life in action, the latter life in repose. The young sailor has bounded into his father's hall, rosy with health and fresh from his voyage; the surprise is too sudden for the father to believe in the identity of his son, whilst the mother takes him at once to her heart. The colour is very forcible and yet not crude, the textures severally admirable, the drama full of life and movement, and the smile on the young lad's face nature itself. *One of Cromwell's Divines* is very meritorious in its kind; the quiet attitude of thought is finely given, the moulding of the face very careful and true, the lights sharp and clear as those in daylight should be; the fault lies in a certain monotony of colour, but the idea is grand.

John Ritchie's street-scene, *Winter Afternoon* (89), is quite unique in its way. To begin, street-scenes are generally either vulgar or tame, either too many passengers or too much light, or it is a deserted village and awfully obscure; again, winter afternoons have been so often and so badly turned out that we felt quite unhappy when we saw the catalogue; but that transient misery was dispelled by a look at Mr. Ritchie's treatment of this stumbling-block in art: we have a rich glow in the winter sky, contrasting with a grateful warmth against the cold building and colder snow, which we are glad to see in this instance is not omnipresent, a few and sufficient group of passengers fills, without thronging, the near pavement, and the vista of the street is cleverly mysterious. In every way this is a most noticeable picture, but Mr. Ritchie must be careful to avoid repetitions.

Dante Rossetti has two remarkable pictures. They may startle and offend some, but in all honesty we cannot withhold praise for his colour and his finish. In *The Fair Rosamond* (796) the colours, individually taken, are truly gorgeous and the finish remarkable, the treatment is weirdlike and unpleasant, not to say meretricious; this cannot be the gentle fairy of royal Edward; this bold-browed damsel would never have died of her own will, and would have preferred the chance of a dagger-thrust to the slow agony of poison. His *Farmer's Daughter* (729) is better and more feminine; the colour is harmonious, and the effect not so violent.

A *Pathway through the Wood* (114), by Peter Graham, shows us how much beauty can be produced by a faithful rendering of Nature; without aiming at anything very great, Mr. Graham has given us something very beautiful. We are in the cool umbrage of a woodland pathway, the mosses are soft and yield to our feet; the sunlight wanders from bole to bole, and smites cheerfully on the hundred clefts and wrinkles carved by Time in the aged stems; the smell of the pines is faint and sweet; the quiet would be awful were it not for two truant children who have been happily transported here by Art to brighten the solitude, and yet without hurting the feeling of the picture; for they are kept at a quiet and artistic distance, where, like all exemplary children, they are seen but not heard. The painting of the stems, the foreground mosses, the suggested pathway, the quiet of the scene, are all severally good, and show that Mr. Graham is a faithful artist and a true poet.

*The Gleaner* (267), by Frith, with the landscape by Creswick, is a pleasant picture to behold; the damsel is comely, and the landscape grateful, but

as a gleaner she is quite out of place; that delicate cheek would have been tanned by the autumn sun ere now, those pretty pink feet are too shapely, and her hair in far too good order for one in her position; and the landscape, again, is too quiet and too subdued; both the gleaner and the background want force, the strength of nature is required to convert what is very charming into what is very good.

*La Soubrette* (307), by Douglas, is a brilliant little bit of painting; the light airy way in which *La Soubrette* moves, and the carelessly happy way in which she carries the flag "full of the warm south," are exceedingly happy; the satin dress on her right arm is a choice morsel of colour, and the touching of the rich oak balustrades in the little oaken chamber, one pair up, is in admirable perspective. *Dante Arranging his Friends in Inferno* (818) is a higher subject, and is very carefully painted, and Dante's character well expressed in the satirical lines about the corners of his mouth—a divine malice, but there is a certain flattery about it that we do not quite like; the accessories are always most perfect in Mr. Douglas's pictures, who throws more colour into them than most artists, and groups them more naturally, as if they were really a part and parcel of the subject, and not introduced for an effect.

Hervey's *Lee Castle* (190) is as poetical as his portrait of Mrs. Napier and her spinning-wheel is commonplace. The one gives you a fine feeling of the glories of dying day and the mystery of distant purple hills; the other puts you into a fidget about the carpets, the chairs, the wheel, and the said Mrs. Napier. You are afraid to tread on all this neat splendour; you'd catch in the wheel, or upset that work-table with lean and ghostly shanks. It may be a faithful interior—chairs, tables, spinning-wheel, and owner thereof—but it is not the kind of picture an artist should take a pride in. The *Lee Castle*, on the other hand, is full of poetry and sentiment—the ghostlike ruins, the dark trees breaking the distance, and the solemn sky.

Erskine Nicol has improved considerably since last year; he has foreborne the too plentiful use of flake-white, which used to give many of his pictures rather a chalky appearance; his colour is purer and richer, his interiors better put together, and his comedy as good as ever. *Waiting for an Answer* (271) is very Irish; and that is tantamount to many paragraphs descriptive of the joke; for what is very Irish is something very original and very absurd. *The Toothache* is still broader in farce; and the Irish agony that must roar for very comfort is well contrasted with the unconcern of his wife, who takes the opportunity of helping herself to a quiet dram, and the easy indifference of his friend, who lights his pipe with provoking nonchalance. Leaving Irish humour, we come quietly to *A Summer Midnight in Norway* (259), by Mr. McWhirter, which is one of the most remarkable landscapes in the Academy. The feature of the picture is something more than repose—an icy, death-like stillness, which hangs over the whole scene. A giant pine, with gnarled trunk and feather-like branches, rises grandly up into the night, and reaches forth a long dark arm, that sends the lake thousands of feet below, and the hills miles away into the distance. The lake lies glassy, the mountains rise cold, the sky, seen by glimpses through the pine branches, is cold and silent too. Mr. McWhirter has avoided figures in it, and he has done well; for they would have intruded, and spoiled the poetry and stillness of the scene.

Noel Paton contributes *Luther at Erfurt* (490). The great Reformer, whom history hands down as a hearty, jolly man, with a stout frame and an echoing laugh, is here dwindled down into a pale, lean student, half frenzied with thought, and ghost-like with care. But the accessories are painted in with considerable vigour and colour, the stained windows, the oaken lectern, the rich curtain; and the figure itself is good to an extent, but does not carry out one's idea of the hearty Luther; his mind was too healthy to allow of his body getting into such a weak state.

In sculptures we have *Ansty Bella*, by Brodie, delicate and womanly; the lines undulate with charming gradation, the hair is light and gently

perceptible, a great rarity in sculpture, where the parting is a deep furrow, and the hair lies in hillocks; again the soul beams out from this cold marble mass, another powerful point; in fact, the bust is a piece of perfection.

Mr. Brodie's statue of *Lord Cockburn* shows that he can grasp all the difficulty of full-length, and overcome it; the attitude is easy, the fall of the drapery is noble, the head fine and intelligent.

Hutchinson's bust of *Robert Scott Lauder* is a fine subject, and finely treated; the splendid brow, open as the day, and the bold uplifted eye, the sensitive nostril, and the patriarchal beard, are all severally seized and blended into a living whole, and made magnificent. Sculpture has immortalized painting, for Robert Scott Lauder will live in this bust, as he is deathless in his own works.

An important picture of landscape and cattle, by Auguste Bonheur, has arrived in this country, and is now on view at the Fine Art Gallery, 28, Old Bond Street. This is the work which obtained the first medal in the French Exposition of last year. The painting is large—thirteen feet by eight feet six inches, and elaborately composed. It is called *Going to the Fair*, and represents a succession of groups of cows and calves, sheep, and oxen, being driven along a track across a heathery moor, which winds past an enclosure and group of trees in front of the spectator. Thus, the droves of cattle are seen coming up from the left, and turning off again to the right towards a distant village. In the foreground are sheep resting, beyond them a white cow, painted with a force of texture and beauty of line which stamps the painter at once as an artist of the highest taste and skill. The head of an animal looking out of the field over a gate is in the school of the celebrated Rosa, and scarcely, if at all, distinguishable from a production of her pencil. On the whole, the merits of the picture are greater than the public in England will have been led to expect. The picture is to be engraved.

At the sale of Mr. Plint's pictures, on Friday and Saturday last, at Messrs. Christie and Manson's, several celebrated works, chiefly of the pre-Raphaelite school, were brought into the market, and among the prices realized were the following:—By J. E. Millais, A.R.A., *The Carpenter's Shop*, exhibited in 1850, £525; *The Proscribed Royalist* (1853), £551. 5s.; *The Black Brunswick* (1860), £819; a small replica of *The Huguenot*, £136. 10s.; and another small replica of the *Escape of the Heretic*, £63; *Wedding Cards*, a small female head, exhibited privately at No. 4, Russell Place, Fitzroy Square, in June, 1857, £126; and *The Bridesmaid*, also £126. By W. Holman Hunt, four landscape studies in the Holy Land, were sold—*The Plain of Rephaim*, £126; *Nazareth*, £151; *The Dead Sea from Siloam*, £66. 3s.; and *Jerusalem during Ramadan* (qy. the picture exhibited in the Academy in 1857?), £105; also, a *Cairo Sunset*, £105; and two repetitions in small, one of the *Scene from the Two Gentlemen of Verona*, £221. 10s.; the other of *Claudio and Isabella*, £210. By J. Noel Paton, R.S.A., *The Dead Lady* (the Academy picture of 1850), sold for £178. 10s. By J. D. Luard, *The Crimean Hut* (1857), fetched £210; *The Girl I Left Behind Me* (1858), £105; and *Nearing Home* (1858), £470. 10s. By H. Wallis, *Henry Martin in Chepstow Castle* (1858), sold for £232. 1s.; *The Return from Marston Moor* (1860), for £141. 15s.; *Gondomar Watching Raleigh's Execution* (1861), for £199. 10s.; and *Elaine* (1861), for £498. 15s. Mr. Windus's *Burd Helen* (1856) sold for £367. 10s. By Mr. F. Madox Brown, a picture called *Last of England*, representing a young couple sitting in the stern of a ship out at sea, with the coast of England in the distance, privately exhibited as above mentioned in 1857, sold for £430. 10s.; *Christ Washing Peter's Feet* (1852), for £294. 10s.; *Head of an English Boy*, for £67. 6s.; and a water-colour painting of the *Virgin, Our Lady of Good Children*, for £53. 11s. By Dante G. Rossetti, a picture representing *Dr. Johnson and his Lady Disciples at the Mitre*, fetched £75. 12s.; *Burd Alane*, £68. 5s.; and a smaller picture, *Lovers*, £15. 4s. 6d. By Arthur Hughes, *The King's Orchard* (1859), sold for £105; and *The Knight of the Sun* for £210.

By Simeon Solomon, *Moses* (1860), reached £105; *Naomi*, £90. 6s.; and *Jewish Harper* (1861), £54. 12s.

Amongst the remaining sales the most important were the following:—*Illustration to Quentin Durward*, by Elmore, R.A., £162. 15s.; *The Arming of Christian*, by Hook, £273; *Grand View in the Environs of Naples* (1857), by Copley Fielding, £489; *A Street in Cairo*, by John Lewis, £178. 10s.; *Broken Vows* (1856), by P. H. Calderon, £115. 10s.; *The Warren* (1858), by J. W. Oakes, £189; *Young Drummer and Kettledrummer*, by Edouard Frère, £94. 10s. each; and *Capestro Preaching at Antwerp*, by H. Leys, the Belgian artist, £850.

The first day's sale realized £5269. 19s. 6d.; that of the second, the oil paintings, £13,121. 11s. 6d.

## MUSIC AND THE DRAMA.

### PHILHARMONIC SOCIETY.

First Concert, Monday, March 10, 1862.

PART I.			
Jubilee Overture	.....	.....	Weber.
Recit., "Sposo, Euridice,"	.....	(Orfeo)	Gluck.
Aria, "Che farò,"	.....	.....	.....
Overture (Genevova)	.....	.....	Schumann.
Aria, "Parto, ma tu ben mio,"	.....	(Clarinet Obligato)	Mozart.
Concerto in A minor, Violin	.....	.....	Viotti.
PART II.			
Sinfonia Eroica	.....	.....	Beethoven.
Duetto, "Vaghe colle"	.....	.....	Winter.
Sarabande, Double Violin	.....	.....	J. S. Bach.
Bourrée, Double Violin	.....	.....	Cherubini.
Overture (Faniska)	.....	.....	.....

Conductor—Professor Sterndale Bennett, Mus. D.

The fiftieth anniversary of this venerable society was ushered in on Monday last, with every prospect of a successful and brilliant season, the "Jubilee" overture being very appropriately placed at the head of the programme, and played with remarkable spirit and energy. True to their determination to secure the highest available talent, the directors have engaged Mme. Tietjens and Herr Joachim for four concerts during the present season; and the splendid performance of the latter on Monday last, both in Viotti's old-fashioned concerto and Bach's Sarabande, and the emphatic recognition of his merits by the audience, must have convinced the directors that their zeal was duly appreciated. The execution of the "Sinfonia Eroica," that grand master-piece of musical thought, originally written in honour of the First Consul before he had assumed the title of Emperor, was in every way worthy of the Philharmonic band and their talented conductor. We question much whether Schumann will ever enjoy in England the same popularity that is accorded to him in Germany; to us his "Genevova" overture stands far below the other overtures included in the programme; the "Faniska," for instance, the clearness, beauty, and symmetry of which, make it as fresh as though it had been written but yesterday. The vocalists were Madame Guerrabella and Miss Lascelles, the former being accompanied by Mr. Williams in the clarinet *obbligato* in Mozart's welcome *Aria*.

KLINDWORTH'S CHAMBER CONCERTS.—The avowed purpose of the projectors of these concerts is to bring before the notice of the English musical public some of those works which, unknown in this country, enjoy a considerable reputation abroad, and also the more unfamiliar compositions of the classical masters. The annexed programme will show that this purpose has been fully carried out:—

Trio in B flat minor, Op. 5 (pianoforte, violin, and violoncello)	.....	.....	Volkmann.
Air (Arimida), "Ah! si la libertà"	.....	.....	Gluck.
Sonata in A, No. 2 (piano and violin)	.....	.....	Bach.
Trio in G, Op. 9, No. 1 (violin, viola, and violoncello)	.....	.....	Beethoven.
Song, "The Summer Wind"	.....	.....	Cherley.
Song, "Zuleika"	.....	.....	Mendelssohn.
Trio in F sharp minor, Op. 1, No. 1 (pianoforte, violin, and violoncello)	.....	.....	Franck.

Novelty does not necessarily constitute excellence; and however grateful we may feel to Mr. Klindworth, whose researches have brought before us two such novelties as the two pianoforte trios above, we regret that we cannot share in his high appreciation of them. The more or less frequent recurrence of the same idea in the different movements of a con-



certed piece is, though a mannerism, pleasing enough when so employed by a master-mind such as Mendelssohn; but when the idea in itself (take, for instance, the opening theme of the first movement, the "Andante con moto") is not remarkable or striking, the result is very different. That the music is original enough we will readily allow; but originality should be the result of independent thought and study, and not sought after for its own sake merely. César Auguste Franck is still in the prime of life, and we may therefore expect to hear more of him; his last work of any magnitude that we are aware of was an oratorio, "Ruth," performed at Paris during the years 1845 or 1846. The execution of these pieces by Messrs. Klindworth, Blagrove, Deichmann, and Daubert, was of the most finished character possible, the pianoforte part in particular demanding the power of a first-rate pianiste. The room was not so full as the merits of the performers deserved it should be, owing no doubt to the fact that on the same evening (Tuesday), the concert given by the "Wandering Minstrels" took place in St. James's Hall. Rubenstein's quintett in F (Op. 55), for piano and wind instruments, is promised for the next concert. The vocal part of the entertainment was assigned to Miss Banks, who acquitted herself with her usual success, the song by Mendelssohn being much more favourably received than the other two.

ERNST PAUER'S PIANOFORTE CONCERTS.—The sixth and last of these series came off on Saturday, when the different schools were contrasted, specimens being chosen from the various masters. In the performance of Moscheles' "Grande Sonate à Quatre Mains," Op. 47, Herr Pauer introduced as his associate Miss Fanny Rubini, a young lady whose appearance and performance at once prepossessed the audience in her favour. Herr Pauer concluded with the celebrated *Hexameron*, a set of variations on the well-known duetto in "Puritani," by Liszt, Thalberg, Pixis, Herz, Czerny, and Chopin, composed at the request of the Princess Christine de Belgioioso. Herr Pauer was most warmly applauded at the termination of the concert, the last of the series, which we are happy to hear has been most successful.

THE MUSICAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.—Three novelties characterized the concert given by this society on Wednesday evening last—the first of the season—a concerto by Herr Joachim, the overture to "Leonora," No. 1 (the least known of the four), and the fantastic overture to "Le Carnaval Romain," by Berlioz. Herr Joachim's concerto in D minor, written in the Hungarian style, and consisting of three movements, was listened to with breathless attention throughout, notwithstanding its extreme length, and its strange, not to say eccentric, character. The strain in the second movement, the "Romance," is singularly wild and beautiful, full of depth and emotion, evidencing not merely the science and executive skill of the musician, but the fervid and profound imagination of the poet.

PART I.		
Overture (Die Zaubertüte)	.....	Mozart.
Aria, "Dolce corde amato"	.....	Mozart.
Concerto in D minor	.....	Joachim.
Scena, "Hail! happy morn" (Robin Hood)	.....	Macfarren.
Overture, No. 1 (Leonora)	.....	Beethoven.
PART II.		
Symphony in A, Op. 90	.....	Mendelssohn.
Duet, "Tanti strati"	.....	Handel.
Overture (Carnaval Romain)	.....	Berlioz.

The vocal pieces were given by Mmes. Sainton-Dolby and Guerrabella, two of them being expressly instrumented by Mr. Henry Smart. At the next concert Beethoven's Choral Symphony will be performed, and Stephen Heller will join Charles Hallé in Mozart's E flat concerto for two pianofortes.

ADELPHI.—It is remarkable that an author of so much experience as Mr. Boucicault should have committed the obvious errors of construction which exist in his five-act drama, "The Life of an Actress," played here on Saturday week for the first time in England. As far as the interest of the audience is concerned, the story may be taken to consist of three distinct portions. Each of these might have formed a little play by itself; but in the order in which they are here given there is not only a want of

union, but what is worse, a decline of interest during the progress of the piece. In the first portion of the plot, an old French actor of all work (personated by the author), discovering in a poor beggar girl (Mrs. Boucicault) the germ of true art, shelters her under his roof, and educates her for the stage, where, at his benefit, she takes the public by storm, to the discomfiture of the leading "star," who had scornfully refused to aid him with her talents. Had the play contained no more than this little plot, bearing, as it does, a close relationship to the well-known "Père de la Débutante," the finished acting of Mr. Boucicault, and the neatness and point of his incident and dialogue, would have combined to form an almost perfect work of art. Unfortunately, however, the latter portions of the play only tend to injure the effect so produced. In the fourth act the heroine is saved in a melodramatic manner, from the villainous designs of one *Maltravers*, a man about town (Mr. Emery), who, by a ruse, has induced her to elope with him from the theatre in the midst of her first performance; and, in the fifth act which comprises the third portion of the plot, the recognition by a haughty countess of the secret marriage of her son with the now leading actress takes place, on the discovery that *Grimaldi*, the adopted father (despite his thoroughly French accent and manner), is an Italian duke, and was an early lover of the countess's. The cold brutality of the attempted seduction, where *Maltravers* drugs his intended victim, was evidently distasteful to the audience; and the concluding act, which is pure surplage, was only rendered attractive by the beauty of the scene and the picturesque effect of an extempore picnic on a lawn. Much, however, as the interest falls off in the sequel of his plot, the highest praise must be awarded to Mr. Boucicault for his truthful and humorous rendering of the old Frenchman. The delicate gusto with which he cooks an omelette for his protégée's breakfast, and his nervous excitement behind the scenes during her *début*, are real gems in their way. In these scenes even Mr. Alfred Wigan, though certainly his equal, could have done nothing better. Mrs. Boucicault acted with her usual pretty delicacy; and Mr. Toole was successful in depicting the tender but hopeless passion of a low comedian for the rising actress.

PRINCESS'S.—Mr. and Mrs. Florence, following their precedent at Drury Lane in 1856, have added to their ordinary impersonations a "Protean comedietta," in which the lady enacts five, and her husband four different characters. The present piece, which was written expressly by Mr. E. L. Blanchard, answers its purpose well in exhibiting the great versatility of both the principal performers. It is called "Working the Oracle."

DRURY LANE.—Mr. and Mrs. Kean have this week added the plays of "Much Ado about Nothing" and "Othello" to their previous representations. We are compelled to reserve our comments till next week.

#### OMNIANA.

Note on two Passages in *Shakespeare*.—Sir, I am much indebted to Mr. Lilly for the trouble he has taken in examining copies of the folio *Shakespeare*, 1623, with reference to the line in the *Two Gentlemen of Verona*. Not unnaturally, I still retain the conviction that my reading is the true one, and that "made" is one of the countless typographical peccadillos of the old folio. Where good sense or grammatical correctness may be restored to a questionable passage in the works of our great dramatist by the alteration of a single letter, or little more, the general reader may be excused for submitting even a mere idle conjecture to the consideration of *Shakespearean* students. In this spirit I made my last communication, and I now venture to call attention to one or two instances where a misconception of the poet's meaning appears to have arisen from the "falling out" at press of the initial letter of a word in the old copies, and where such defect has not hitherto been suspected.

In *Coriolanus*, act v. sc. 5, Aufidius, inveighing against the ingratitude and treachery of Coriolanus

to himself and the Volscians, dwells upon his own former services to him in these terms:—

"I took him;  
Made him joint servant with me; gave him way  
In all his own desires; nay, let him choose  
Out of my files, his projects to accomplish,  
My best and freshest men; serv'd his designs  
In mine own person; help to reap the fame  
Which he did end all his; and took some pride  
To do myself this wrong," &c.

Rowe, not satisfied with this passage as he found it, changed "end" to *make*, an alteration which Johnson and other editors adopted, and upon which Monck Mason remarked that "it seems the more natural expression, though the other be intelligible." Subsequent commentators have dealt with it, *suo quisque more*. Mr. Collier, adhering to the Perkins folio, prints "ear" for *end*, in his last edition; but we may gather from his note, *ad l.*, that he inclines to believe the right word to be "in." This would yield a better sense; to "ear," in our old language, meaning to plough, while to "in" meant to get in the harvest. The late Mr. Singer embraced the proposal of a correspondent of *Notes and Queries* (vii. 378), and printed—

"Help to reap the fame  
Which he did ear all his;"

this transposition being based upon the lection of the Perkins folio. Mr. Dyce follows the old copies and the Variorum, offering Mr. Grant White's explanation, that "end" may here be taken to mean *make in the end*. But after all, will not the substitution of *bind* for "end" remove the whole difficulty? Is it not more probable that Shakespeare wrote—

"Help to reap the fame  
Which he did bind all his;"

For the common antithesis of "reap" and "bind," in metaphorical illustration of the commencement and completion of a course of action, we need not look beyond the pages of Shakespeare himself. See *As You Like It*, act iii. sc. 2 (verses),

"They that reap must sheaf and bind,  
Then to cart with Rosalind."

Assuming the initial "b" to have "dropped out," the remaining "ind" would naturally be altered to *end*. We have sufficient evidence that the folio 1623 was corrected without any reference to "copy."

The other instance to which I allude occurs in *Hamlet*, act iv. sc. 5, where a gentleman of the court, rushing into the King's presence to announce the rising of the populace at the instigation of Laertes, exclaims,

"Save yourself, my lord:  
The ocean, overpeering of his list,  
Eats not the flats with more impetuous haste  
Than young Laertes, in a riotous head,  
O'erboards your officers," &c.

Such is the received text in all modern editions of *Shakespeare*. The quarto *Hamlet*, 1604, and the folio 1623, favour us, in the third line, with

"Eates not the flats with more impetuous hast,"

and Mr. Knight (alone, I believe) retains "impituous" in the sense of *unpitying*. That the ocean may be (figuratively) considered to eat the flats, in the sense of covering them, and thus causing them to disappear, I readily admit. "Eating the flats" may be an unexceptionable metaphor, however "impituous" a proceeding; but, with all reverence for the old authorities, I dare hazard the conjecture that Shakespeare wrote

"The ocean, overpeering of his list,  
Beats not the flats with more impetuous haste,  
Than young Laertes, in a riotous head,  
O'erboards your officers;"

and that here again the initial "b" "came to grief" at the hands of the compositor. Let us weigh the context; the irruption of the ocean, with the rebellion of Laertes. In each case,

"Contention, like a horse  
Full of high feeding, madly hath broke loose,  
And bears down all before him."

King Henry IV., Part II., act i. sc. 1.

As Laertes o'erboards the officers, so the ocean beats its course over the plain. The lines in *Hamlet* remind us of

"the tide of pomp  
That beats upon the high shore of this world."  
King Henry V., act iv. sc. 1.

And recall the words of Timon (act iv. sc. 3),

"Then, Timon, presently prepare thy grave;  
Lie where the light foam of the sea may beat  
Thy grave-stone daily."

W. D.

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